WAYS OF IMPROVING THE TEACHING OF WRITING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN HUNGARIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation focuses on one aspect of foreign language teaching in the Hungarian public education: teaching and the assessment of writing in English as a foreign language.

The ultimate aim of the investigation was to work out a training framework for teacher training institutions to improve the quality of in-service training in teaching and assessing writing in English as a foreign language in Hungary. The research was motivated by the fact that teaching writing is a neglected area of English language teaching, and that the Hungarian examination reform puts emphasis on developing students' writing skills as well.

In order to reach the above-mentioned goal the thesis investigated the state of foreign language teaching in Hungary, summarised the relevant research findings into the teaching of writing, gave an overview of the research done in Hungary in the field of EFL writing instruction and testing in Hungarian secondary schools, analysed the official documents (curricula, present Matura examination requirements, the new Matura examination requirements) that set the conditions for the teaching of writing and the requirements students have to meet. The dissertation includes the research carried out by the author into determining progressive ways of testing writing in the new Matura examination, identifying teachers' needs for training in teaching and testing writing and factors contributing to reaching high professional quality in teaching writing. The author presents the content and framework of a university-based in-service training course for practising teachers of English incorporating the relevant findings of the above points.

On the basis of the theoretical and empirical evidence of the research it was possible to determine the writing subskills that secondary school students need to acquire by the end of their secondary-school studies, the writing tasks and text-types that need to be included in instruction and testing in accordance with the principles of communicative language teaching and students' real-life needs.

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"The time to begin writing an article is when you have finished it to your satisfaction. By that time you begin to clearly and logically perceive what it is you really want to say."

Mark Twain

1. Introduction

The present research project deals with one segment of foreign language teaching in Hungary, namely teaching writing in English as a foreign language in the Hungarian secondary education. As English is the major language of international communication for Hungary, teaching to communicate effectively both in speaking and writing is a vital educational issue of public education.

Teaching effective communication in writing has been selected as the research area mainly for two reasons. As a teacher trainer being involved in training teachers of English for twelve years the author of the present thesis has found that writing coherent texts appropriate for a certain communicative purpose, e.g. an application for a scholarship or a simple letter of complaint, involves great difficulty for undergraduate English majors, which makes it even more difficult for these future teachers of English to learn how to teach the skill. The high emphasis of the past few years on teaching oral skills has marginalised the teaching of effective writing. However, for a new EU member aspiring for success in Europe, in order to set up and maintain smooth international relations in various fields of business, science and culture, it is inevitable to arm school-leavers with good written English skills as well. The other reason for choosing this area of investigation is related to the author's work in the Hungarian Matura examination reform. As early as the first two years of the examination development (1998-99), the weakest area of teachers' skills was writing instruction and the weakest student performances were in writing. These experiences led the author to take a deeper look into the reasons of insufficient writing instruction and to come up with some recommendations for improving the situation.

The research investigated the following areas:

- The theoretical background of teaching writing in a foreign language
- The history of foreign language teaching in Hungary
- Curriculum development in foreign language teaching
- Empirical research into the present state of foreign language teaching, and teaching in Hungary and testing writing in the Hungarian secondary schools
- The requirements of the new Matura examination in teaching writing and its impact on teaching
- Teachers' needs and competence in teaching and testing writing.

The research project on teachers' beliefs and needs regarding their practice of teaching writing in English as a foreign language intended to find answers to the following questions:

1) How confident are teachers of English about teaching writing skills compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking skills?
2) How confident are teachers of handling different writing task-types?
3) How useful do they find several proposed training components?
4) What other training areas do they need?
5) What determines the content and the methodology of their writing syllabus?
6) Do their students write in English for real-life purposes outside the classroom?
7) For what purposes do students write outside the classroom?
8) Do teachers provide any help for their students to write outside the classroom?
9) What else do teachers need to become competent teachers of writing?
10) What is the relationship between how confident teachers feel about teaching writing and

- the confidence level in teaching the other skills, grammar and vocabulary
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- their length of experience in teaching

- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools ?

11) What is the relationship between the length of teachers' experience and
- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools?

12) What is the relationship between the feature whether a teacher has students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and
- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools?

13) What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and
- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus

- what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach

The final aim of the thesis was to set up the framework for a university-based in-service training course for practising teachers, which incorporates the findings of the above mentioned research areas. The aim of the training programme was to improve teachers' skills in teaching text-level writing and testing writing. This way the outcomes of the research will be channelled back into the classroom.

The first three areas were explored through sampling the relevant professional literature. The fourth area has been presented through the research completed by the Matura examination team (including the author of the present thesis) as a baseline study to the examination reform. The fifth and the sixth areas and the training programme involved individual research by the author.

2. Historical background - a review of foreign language teaching in Hungary

In the present chapter an attempt will be made to describe the present situation of English language teaching in Hungary and the political, economic and socio-educational factors that are responsible for that situation with the aim to be able to make recommendations for further development in certain areas of English language teaching in Hungary.

2.1 Brief historical background

Hungary with a population of 10.4 million lies in the Carpathian Basin. Almost five million Hungarians (Magyars) live outside the national borders, mostly as a result of the Trianon Treaty after World War I, World War II and the 1956 Uprising.

After 1947, when the Communists seized the political power in the country, a period of oppression started. A process of nationalisation, and unfeasibly fast industrialisation began. Peasants were forced into collective farms and the produce had to be delivered to the state free. The secret police, working with a network of informers, jailed and sent to labour camps thousands of people for being 'class enemies' and the Stalinist show trials became a norm. It was this situation that led to the Uprising in 1956, which was put down by the Russian tanks. The result of the severe reprisals was 2,000 people executed, 20,000 arrested. About 250,000 refugees fled Hungary through Austria. János Kádár, the new leader of the Communist Party, after the terror of the reprisals, began to consolidate his regime and liberalise the social and economic structure. So called 'market socialism' was introduced. By the mid-seventies Hungary was known as the 'happiest barracks' in the Soviet bloc. There was a considerably high standard of living for everybody, social safety and a much higher freedom of movement and opportunity to criticise the government than in any other Eastern-European country. The happy 'goulash-communism' started to collapse in the 1980s. The regime was unable to cope with the enormous foreign debt and the high inflation. Kádár was dismissed in 1988. The more permissive attitude of Gorbachov's Perestroika speeded up the events. New parties formed, and in September 1989 Hungary cut away the electrified wire fence that

separated it from Austria. Thousands of East Germans staying in Hungary fled to the West, and the collapse of Communism was irreversible (Valuch, 2001).

In 1990, the first free democratic elections after 40 years were won by the centrist Hungarian Democratic Forum, which formed a coalition with smaller right-wing parties. That government started the painful transition to a market economy. As most of the population was dissatisfied with the falling living standards, the successor of the former Communist party won the next elections and formed a coalition with the liberal Free Democrats. Although the first two governments managed to found the basis for economic development and curb the inflation, the majority of the population still did not feel much improvement. In 1998, the third democratic elections were won by a centrist-right-wing party that had not been within either of the previous governments, the Young Democrats. Then again dissatisfaction brought back the Socialist Party and the Free Democrats. Despite the difficulties, the NATO membership, the accession to the European Union in 2004, the intensive foreign investment, and the rising of the GDP indicate that Hungary has perhaps passed the most difficult period. However, the joke still reflects people's feelings:

- Question: 'What's worse than Communism?'
- Answer: 'What comes after it.'

2.2 Language

The Hungarian language belongs to the Finno-Ugric language group and is distantly related only to Finnish, Estonian and about a dozen other languages with only a few thousand speakers in Siberia. It does not belong to the Indo-European languages, which is responsible for the fact that its structure is very different from most European languages, and there is practically no recognisable vocabulary for visitors. As a result Hungarian is considered difficult to learn. On the other hand, it is vital for Hungarians to speak foreign languages.

2.3 Education

Hungary is a well-educated society with a literacy rate of about 98%. School is compulsory until the age of 18, and compulsory primary education starts at the age of 6. The education system follows mostly the German model, the 8-year primary school is followed by 4 years of secondary studies. The secondary schools are of two types, grammar schools and vocational schools. In the past few years new types of secondary schools have been established as well. More and more 6-year and 8-year secondary schools have been founded. At the end of secondary-school studies a compulsory school-leaving examination is taken, which is partly centrally-administered (Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000).

2.4 Foreign language competence before 1989

Before the Treaty of Trianon (1920), when Hungary lost two thirds of its territory, out of the ten million native Hungarians about 1.3 million could speak German as a foreign language. Without the languages of the ethnic minorities, French and English followed German by 82,000 and 37,000 speakers respectively. (Statistical Report 1910, cited in Huszár, 1998). The data does not involve information about levels and is based on self-report. The high proportion of German speakers is due to historical reasons. After the Turks were expelled from Hungary in 1686, until 1918, Hungary was a mere province of the Habsburg Empire with periods of higher and lower level of independence, depending on the outcome of the various liberation movements. The German language played a very important role in the administration, and in the economic and cultural life of the country.

According to the 1990 National Census data, out of the 10.4 million native speakers of Hungarian 453,000 claimed to speak German, 229,000 English, 157,000 Russian and 53,000 French (Statistical yearbook, 1995). This set of data does not distinguish between high and low language proficiency either. The two sets of data indicate that in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy 14.9 per cent of the population claimed to have some command of a foreign language, mostly German, while right after the end of the Russian occupation only 8.92 per cent. Such decline was the result of a chain of causes.

After the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy ceased to exist, German started to lose its significance as it did not penetrate life any more. As a reaction to the German-ally past the communist era after the Second World War did not tolerate the German language at schools. On the other hand, the new, compulsorily taught foreign language, Russian, was so unpopular that it never could take its place. The vast majority of people were unmotivated to learn Russian: the Russian language was not used in any sphere of professional or social life, it did not convey any appealing value to people, on the contrary, it was the language of the invaders. Furthermore, there was practically no contact between the citizens of the two countries. The other characteristic feature of the 50's and 60's was that the teaching of English, French and other foreign languages was practically non-existent in the public education. These facts illustrate well how devastating the effect of the communist regime on foreign language education was (Major, 2001, Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000).

2.5 Foreign language teaching before 1989

Not surprisingly, the history of foreign language teaching in Hungary bears the impact of the stormy political and economic changes that have taken place over the last 60 years.

Before 1948 the objectives of teaching German and other foreign languages followed the tradition of teaching Latin and Ancient Greek, namely to enable students to read and translate literature, and develop grammatical accuracy. The underlying theory was the Grammar Translation Method (see Appendix 1) with its emphasis on the written, literary language. Around the end of the 19th century a reform movement of linguists made an attempt to introduce the Direct Method (see Appendix 1) with its emphasis on the spoken language to be used for communication. Apart from dealing with classical literary texts, certain aspects of the target language culture and oral communication also gained some ground. Up to the end of the Second World War foreign language teaching was characterised by constant battles between the conservative and the progressive side in educational policy, which resulted in Latin and Greek and also the Grammar Translation Method gradually losing ground (Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000).

In 1950 came the major change, Russian was decreed to be the 'first', the compulsory foreign language in all school-types. In Hungary, similarly to most countries of the Soviet bloc (Bulgaria, Poland, Czechoslovakia and the German Democratic Republic) every student had to learn Russian both in primary and secondary education. In Hungary it involved 4 years at primary level, 4 years at secondary level and another 2 years at university or college. At the same time other foreign languages were almost completely expelled from schools.

After the reprisal following the revolution of 1956, some liberalisation started in foreign language education. Modern foreign languages gradually entered the curriculum again. However, they could only be taught in a low number of hours by a limited number of mostly not very competent teachers. At the same time the teaching of Russian was highly ineffective. In the 50's and 60's schools were full of unqualified Russian teachers. There was also a small number of Russian soldiers' wives, who at least knew the language but did not know how to teach it. Also, for political safety reasons they were banned from socialising with Hungarians. The textbooks, which comprised texts with the lives of Soviet heroes, extracts from literature, and mechanical grammar drills hardly involved any motivation for the students. Furthermore, students had practically no opportunity to use the language for real communication involving interactive processes and conversation neither inside nor outside the classroom. In the 60's the education of the second foreign languages reflected more progressive methods: the curriculum suggested developing speaking skills through the Audio-Lingual Method (see Appendix 1), and the second foreign language was also obliged to introduce the civilisation and culture of the countries where the target language was spoken (Terestyéni, 1996, Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000).

The introduction of a new curriculum for secondary grammar schools in 1978 was a revolutionary step, as it reflected the communicative Functional-Notional Approach (see Appendix 1) with an emphasis on language functions and vocabulary. The English curriculum was uniquely based on a Council of Europe document, Threshold Level (Van EK, 1977), which advocated communicative language teaching and set up the content and requirements for successful language learning for all the Western European countries. This curriculum was a big step ahead also because it was much less prescriptive than its predecessors. However, these progressive changes in the aims and

documents did not result in the improvement of the foreign language competence of the population. Still, some of the many indispensable conditions for improvement were laid. Learning foreign languages, as Enyedi and Medgyes (1998) point out, was also without appeal due to the lack of travelling opportunities and access to the English speaking media. English had no real communicative value. The bare statistical figures well illustrate the situation. Even in the year of the Berlin Wall's destruction only 3 per cent of primary-school pupils (6-14 years) and less than 20 per cent of secondary-school pupils (15-18 years) had the opportunity to learn English, the most popular foreign language (Művelődési Minisztérium 1989 in Medgyes and Malderez, 1996).

Before 1989 the teacher training institutions also followed a traditional model; the faculties of art had teacher training course components in their five-year MA programmes; trainee language teachers were supposed to have a good command of the language, and be erudite in literature and linguistics. Teaching-related courses such as foreign language teaching methodology, however, were not taken seriously neither by the teachers nor the students, akin to the compulsory 'scientific socialism' and other ideological courses. The teaching practice (the actual hours observed, taught and discussed) was short, about 15 lessons, and allowed trainees to make only the very first steps in the classroom. This way, instead of becoming well-trained beginner teachers with some experience, students' aim was merely to survive a few 45-minute sessions in the primary and secondary classroom.

2.6 The changes in foreign language policy after 1989

1989 was the year when communism collapsed in Hungary. Soon the whole of Central and Eastern Europe was involved in establishing market economy alongside the establishment of more democratic political institutions. Hungary soon declared its wish for further changes and hope for integration into the European Community and NATO. The euphoria of the Hungarian population soon faded out as the people started to feel the price of the new life dominated by Western prices and Eastern European salaries. This is especially the case for employees in the public sector and the pensioners even at the present. According to Gazsó (1997) one third of the population lived below the poverty line. A statistical survey made ten years after the fall of Communism showed that 40 per cent of the population would like to have the communist era back, and only

50 per cent considered the freedom to travel and 47 per cent the existence of the free press important (Népszabadság 17 November 1999).
Since 1990 right-wing conservative and left-wing social-liberal governments have been following each other, the conservatives trying to bring back more centralisation to schools, while the other side has been committed to liberalising the education system. This 'tug-of war' has achieved a growing feeling of insecurity among teachers, a dramatic devaluation of their salaries, and practically no change in their classroom practices (Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001). At the same time Hungarian students' academic performance in the light of international comparative studies has gradually declined (Csapó, 1998), though their results used to be exceptionally good in the 1970's and 1980's.

The political and economic changes initiated changes in education as well. One of the most important indicators of changes in foreign language teaching was that Russian ceased to be a compulsory subject in schools. According to the statistical data issued by the Hungarian Ministry of Education between 1988/89 and 1996/97 the number of pupils learning Russian decreased to 2 per cent both in primary and secondary schools, while in tertiary education to 3 per cent. At the same time the number of students learning English and German has increased dramatically: over the same period at primary level the number of students studying German and English increased from 8 per cent to 55 per cent and from 5 per cent to 48 per cent respectively. At secondary level increases were 18 to 35 per cent and 24 to 50 per cent. At tertiary level the increase in German is 30 per cent from 10 per cent, while in English 57 per cent from 19 per cent was noted (Művelődési és Közoktatási Minisztérium, 1988-96). Not only in Hungary but in all Central and Eastern Europe English has become the most popular foreign language.

As Hungary emerged as a significant part of the international trade and business and technological world, its people obviously travelled more extensively. The concomitant increase in communication technology, the free access to German and English media, especially television and radio broadcasting, provided exposure to foreign languages and became a motivating factor. The knowledge of foreign languages became essential for many professionals. Furthermore, economic trade led to cultural and scientific change, which necessitated further curriculum developments within the educational

system. The increasing international activity put a great pressure on educational decision makers and schools to make English and German available to wide audiences. However, students and parents soon had to realise that schools were unable to satisfy the demands because teachers of these two languages were in short supply; according to moderate estimates, the shortfall was in the order of 10,000 (Medgyes and Malderez 1996). Furthermore, some of those that were available had difficulties with a new need for colloquial and conversational foreign language expertise.

In order to ease the tension between demand and supply the Hungarian government launched two educational programmes. The Russian Retraining Programme, running out in 1998, trained Russian teachers to become qualified teachers of another foreign language, mostly English or German. The outcome of the programme is doubtful. As Enyedi and Medgyes (1998) state these teachers were forced to become teachers of a new language past middle age, fighting the shock of becoming redundant, in the meantime working full-time often as unqualified teachers of the new language. Also, out of the 15,000 Russian teachers only 3,200 graduated, the rest of the 4,900 graduates were originally teachers of other subjects (Vágó, 1999).

The other 'remedy' the government introduced in 1990 was the fast-track teacher training programmes in English and German. These 3-year B Ed programmes in Hungary, unlike the traditionally philology-centred 5-year MA university courses, were in the enviable position of not having traditions so they were free to set up their own philosophy and practices. They could therefore build on the latest results of applied linguistics and language pedagogy. At the same time they had to notice that they were challenging many preconceptions within those traditional universities which hosted them. These ranged from questioning theoretical assumptions about education through to choosing alternative methods and systems for language learning.

The Centre for English Teacher Training (CETT) within the Eötvös Lorand University of Budapest has been running such a 3-year programme since 1990. The CETT programme concentrates on professional training, with the methodology related courses taking up roughly 50 per cent of the curriculum besides language improvement, linguistics and literature courses. The biggest difference between the traditional 5-year programme and the CETT programme lies in the amount of teaching practice. CETT

students complete about one hundred hours of teaching experience, whereas the traditional programmes provide about 15 hours. Feedback received through CETT staff's regular communication with head-masters of secondary-schools and language-school directors in Budapest has been very favourable towards the teaching skills of CETT graduates. The findings of a survey carried out in 2003 also revealed CETT graduates' satisfaction with the content and methodology of the training (Révész, unpublished).

Quality training is not enough if teachers do not wish to use their professional skills. Tracking study results of the university's graduates' career choices between 1993-97 show that while 50.2 per cent of CETT graduates started teaching in the public sector after graduation, only 24.4 per cent were still teaching at the time of the survey. The picture is even worse in the case of the 5-year programme for traditional language teaching graduates; out of the 49.8 per cent who started teaching only 18.8 per cent were still in the schools in 1998 (Ryan, 1999). Another survey (Halász and Lannert, 1998) revealed similar disheartening results: over 50 per cent of qualified English teachers did not work in public education.

These results reflect the low prestige of the teaching profession, the deterring effect of the low salaries, and the much more attractive career opportunities trade, business and media offer. This is perhaps most pronounced for translation contracts in industry and commerce. In 1990 a school teacher's average salary was 106 per cent of the national average, by 1999 it was a mere 88 per cent (Udvardy, 1999). As a consequence it is not unusual even for university lecturers to have a second or even third employment in order to supplement income.

Other factors also hinder the process of improving language teaching through highly skilled teachers. The 1997 decree on teacher training decreased the hours for methodology and teaching practice in pre-service teacher training institutions. As a result, in the past 3 years there has been a tendency of strengthening the philological subjects at the expense of the teacher development subjects. CETT also had to decrease its 2-semester school practice for one semester.

The expansion of English and German language teaching has brought about changes in the teaching materials, the school curricula and the examination system as well. Modern communication-based teaching materials have been introduced, innovative school programmes have been launched, and the mostly good-quality training programmes are able to equip trainees with new teaching methodologies. In 1996 the previous uniform curriculum was replaced by the National Core Curriculum (NCC), which controls standards through output requirements. The NCC sets the minimum requirements and requirements beyond that level in ten different knowledge areas (cultural domains) for every two-year stage of studies. It does not cover Year 11 and 12 (ages 17 and 18). The requirements of the new Matura examination (to be launched in 2005) are supposed to set the standards for the last two years. The NCC prescribes that students must start studying the first foreign language by grade 5 at the latest, and this foreign language must be studied for at least six years. Language learning may begin one or two years earlier, and a second foreign language may be studied as well. Criticism was expressed about the possibility of late start, (the Council of Europe advocates an early start), and the low number of hours (an average of 2.5-3.00 hours a week is available for the study of foreign languages across the six grades of compulsory education). Given the low number of hours it is not realistic to expect students to achieve communicative proficiency in one language, let alone two. The present government, responding to the criticism, lowered the starting year for the first foreign language to the 4th grade. The number of contact hours has been increased as well. Between Year 4 and 8 the first foreign language has been allocated minimum 4 contact hours per week, between Grade 9 and 12 a total of seven hours will be given to the two foreign languages. The group size for language classes is limited to 16.

At present students take a complex school-leaving examination including compulsory and elective subjects. The compulsory subjects are: Hungarian Language and Literature, History, Mathematics and Foreign Language. Minority students (students coming from Slovak, Romanian, Serbian communities are provided education in their mother tongues) take Native Language instead of Hungarian Language and Literature and Hungarian is the compulsory foreign language component. Passing the school-leaving examination means the successful completion of secondary-school studies and is the condition for taking entrance examinations to colleges or universities. The present school-leaving examination is excessively criticised by teachers, students, parents and

universities as being invalid, unreliable, not reflecting the changes in teaching and lacking a proper evaluation system (Ábrahám and Jilly, 1999).

The new school-leaving examination is to be launched in May 2005 with a student centred focus on learning outcomes as compared with teaching a curriculum through 'covering a syllabus'. In this way final standards can be more successfully addressed through the use of transparent criteria for assessment. The new system is encouraging an emphasis on output and student achievement rather than input and teacher-based activity. One consequence is that unlike in the past when all children learnt all subjects from the same course books, teaching materials can be chosen freely, syllabuses designed locally, but achievements are to be tested centrally according to the requirements of the NCC (Nikolov *et al.* 1999).

2.7 The foreign language competence today

The present situation might be well illustrated by a remark from an excellent Lonely Planet guidebook on Hungary (Fallon, 1997), on Hungarians' foreign language competence: "Hungarians tend to speak only Hungarian. Even when they have a smattering of a foreign language, they lack experience or are hesitant to speak it" (p.39). At the same time the guidebook reflects some change as well: "Though this is changing slowly, English is rarely heard outside the capital; if you are desperate, look for someone young, preferably under the age of 25". It would be nice to hear something much more favourable in 10 years' time.

The political and economic changes after 1989 definitely increased language learning motivation. The Hungarian citizens have much better career prospects if they speak good English or German. Although a lot of measures have already been introduced to enhance foreign language teaching, the recent statistical data still show that the foreign language competence of the population leaves a lot to be desired. A study investigating the foreign language competence of the Hungarian population was carried out in 1996 on a sample of 2000 Hungarian citizens over 14 (Terestyéni, 1996). The results reveal that 90 per cent of the respondents with secondary school qualifications and 59 per cent with university or college degrees claim that they cannot communicate in any foreign language. Admittedly this feedback is based on self report rather than empirical

observation of foreign language speaking, but nonetheless there is a strong indication of low confidence and of perceived ability. Unfavourable as the results may seem they also reveal that the younger, educated, urbanised respondents are more likely to know a foreign language. Findings also show that better educated, young urban respondents are more likely to speak English, while German knowledge is more characteristic of less educated older people from smaller settlements (Nikolov, 1999b). The study conducted by Terestyéni reveals a very positive attitude to foreign language learning: 84 per cent of the respondents wish to study foreign languages.

In another survey, conducted by Manherz (1995), 50 per cent of the respondents claimed not to speak any foreign languages, and only 6 per cent claimed to speak one language fluently. These data indicate that foreign language teaching is still ineffective in schools.

Naturally, it is difficult to measure changes in linguistic competences within a very short time scale. As has been seen the positive changes in foreign language teaching have not yet brought very spectacular results, though some improvement can be noticed. The slow development can be attributed to the fact that there are inhibiting factors at almost every social-political-professional level of foreign language teaching. In spite of the fact that teacher training institutions are struggling with inadequate financial support most of them act as innovators, initiators and implementers of progressive practices and are able to train highly skilled reflective teachers. However, most of these teachers do not enter the teaching profession thereby making the process highly ineffective and uneconomical. The lack of consistent educational policy and the often unprofessional ministerial decisions about education by non-educationalists also hinder faster development.

2.8 A new foreign language teacher training philosophy and practice

One of the fast track 3-year programmes, CETT Budapest, together with some other teacher training institutions and schools in Hungary, operates with the aim of educating students in English lessons through practice in finding and using information in the solution of real problems (Claxton, 1989). This is in marked contrast to swallowing, memorising and reproducing information in the EFL classroom; instead, students

acquire skills, awareness and appropriate attitudes to learning. CETT's philosophy claims that teachers are not mere information givers, but are instead dedicated to the facilitation of a global process that involves developing intellectual and language skills, problem solving, awareness raising about learning and language, co-operation and tolerance towards different cultures and values (Medgyes and Malderez, 1996).

Traditional Hungarian education therefore needs the opportunity of foreign language classrooms where students learn other social skills as well. Examples include how to get to know and accept each other, how to exchange ideas, negotiate opinions, come to agreements or express disagreement. The EFL classroom has an incredible educational potential in this respect, which also leads to social and cultural change in Hungarian society. As the Hungarian schools have not yet got rid of the authoritarian and didactic traditions, the more relaxed and democratic culture of the EFL classroom has a lot to do with changing the school into a place where responsible learning takes place in more open contexts.

CETT has taken up this responsibility and for this reason runs an extended one-semester teaching experience, during which a pair of students are responsible for the learning within a class. CETT is involved in the professional development of students who are 'reflective practitioners' (Schön, 1983), who are already experienced teachers when they start their career and look upon their practice as continuous professional development. CETT, being an institution without traditions, has managed to turn its philosophy into practice. It is free from rigid mandates, has space and enthusiasm for bottom-up initiatives, challenges beliefs and practices, and reflects on its practice continuously.

The trainees who become teachers will no longer be the reluctant implementers of change based on political mandates. These trainees are associated with a step change in classroom practice wherein they initiate change at student centred levels - and often in unpredictable directions (Medgyes and Malderez, 1996). This new generation of students is completing its teaching experience in 30 practice schools in Budapest with the professional guidance of trained school-based mentor teachers and university trainers. These schools can be considered among the most progressive establishments because their teachers are in constant contact with the university, participate in

professional events and in-service training programmes. The trainee teachers bring in new ideas and force the mentors to continuously reflect on their own and the trainees' practice.

2.9 Hungarian language as a school subject

Hungarian language and literature are traditionally very important school subjects and are compulsory subjects at the school-leaving examination. However, there has not been extensive research carried out to assess students' proficiency level in the four language skills. In his remarkable study Horváth (1998) examined the first language competence of young adults with school-leaving examination, school teachers and business managers. The author concluded that the weakest areas for all three groups were public speaking and formal writing. Although there is evidence that good writing skills in the mother tongue have favourable effect on the development of writing in a foreign language, further examination of this area is outside the scope of the present paper (Arndt, 1987; Edelsky, 1982).

2.10 Conclusion

Due to the linguistic and political isolation the foreign language competence of the population of Hungary is far behind that of the Western European countries. As a result of the re-structuring of the training system, the appearance of new foreign language teaching methodologies and the free contact with other nations there is improvement in foreign language skills, however, huge effort will have to be made to reach acceptable standards in the area.

3. Curriculum reform in Hungary

The previous section of the research project presented an overview of the social and educational background for foreign language teaching in Hungary In the present section, in order to put the research into context, a short review will be provided for curriculum development in Europe and Hungary in the past decades. The main reason for the present research is to respond to the curriculum reforms within a changing educational policy context for Hungary through a staff training programme, consequently, it is necessary to investigate the curricular context of foreign language teaching.

3.1 The influence of Western Europe

In the 1980s new curriculum development approaches started to emerge in the Western European countries. These curricula put strong emphasis on teaching integrated subject areas and developing the whole personality of the student. Countries that had earlier favoured stronger centralised systems (like Austria, Germany, Sweden and France) gradually adopted a more flexible system by regulating only the basic course content and output requirements. At the same time other countries with decentralised educational systems and autonomous schools introduced basic compulsory course content and standardised requirements. This way countries with different past educational traditions realised the need of setting up *core curricula*, which regulate the course content, the skills and the cognitive maturity level for each student to achieve by the end of a certain developmental period. These core curricula usually also defined the methods through which the educational aims were to be reached (Ballér, 1996).

The above mentioned changes in the educational policy of the Western European countries have been brought about by several reasons. The most important might be the re-evaluation of the concept of 'knowledge' and 'learning'. The new global challenges and demands, like the ability to adapt to the changing environment, the possession of marketable skills, the development of information technology and the need for lifelong learning have changed the concept of the necessary knowledge to be provided by public education. Instead of providing concrete content knowledge, the development of applicable skills and procedures has gained ground in education and in the documents

regulating education as well. This tendency has led to the appearance of less prescriptive school curricula. At the same time, in order to ensure quality in education, the policy makers put more emphasis on output regulation, which led to the development of standardised evaluation systems. Thus, most Western European countries set up their centralised school examinations by the 90s. These examinations were supposed to provide student selection criteria, check the efficiency and ensure the accountability of schools and measure the equivalence of school curricula (Ballér, 1993). These standardised examinations have recently been strongly criticised on the basis of not being able to assess complex content, integrated skills and the personality development of students. In several countries this contradiction has been resolved by introducing 'mixed' exams. In Holland, for example, where local curricula show great diversity, 50% of the school-leaving examination is the standardised national examination, the other 50% is a local component compiled according to the local curriculum (Mátrai, 1991). Compared to the Hungarian examinations the Western European examinations are more involved with practical problem solving tasks, which rely on students' ability to apply their knowledge and skills gained throughout their studies in complex integrated exam tasks (Csapó, 1998).

The above described features of the curriculum development work in the Western European countries have highly influenced the development of the Hungarian National Core Curriculum (NCC) (1995). The NCC also places high emphasis on integrated knowledge areas, output regulation, and gives considerable freedom to the way standards are to be reached by individual institutions.

3.2 The development of the Hungarian National Core Curriculum

The national core curriculum - the document which defines the framework and content for the educational work in the public education of a country - should be the result of thorough professional work and negotiations with all the stakeholders: those who are in any way involved in or affected by education. It is therefore concluded that curriculum reform, like any other innovation, involves several kinds of participants or stakeholders: policy-makers, who take the decisions (politicians, ministry officials, top officials at universities); specialists, who provide the necessary resources (curriculum and syllabus designers, materials writers, methodologists, teacher trainers); teachers, who deliver the

services; students (and parents), who receive the services (Bárány *et al.*, 1999). The national core curriculum is supposed to be a workable compromise that reflects the actual educational policy of the government, the professional work of pedagogical and curriculum design experts, the acknowledged requirements of teachers, headmasters, students and parents concerning content, quality, facilities, resources and teaching hours. The history and the present developments of the Hungarian National Core Curriculum show that progress can be achieved even when such compromise has not completely been reached. In this case, however, the resources invested yield less result than expected.

It might be considered natural that at a certain stage of social-economic development not all the participants are equally interested in the change, and the outcome of the reform will depend at least in part on forces working against each other. Innovative ideas are bound to hurt those whose psychological and occupational security rests on the survival of the old system. Therefore, efforts should be made to convince opponents about the benefit that the new curriculum will bring them (Kaplan, 1992). Also, it is generally accepted by educationalists that campaign-like reforms urged by agents with vested personal interests in their realisation are dangerous. In general, evolution is a far more desirable goal than revolution in curriculum development (Stenhouse, 1975; Johnson, 1989). The above mentioned theoretical considerations underpin the conclusion that thoroughly thought-out and professionally well-founded programmes that try to win all the participants have better prospects to get realised. As Medgyes and Nikolov (2001) argue "If certain preliminary measures are not spared before designing the curriculum, the chance of success may be generally enhanced. The first question to be asked is whether the reform is necessary, timely and feasible. The continuation of a programme which has lost steam usually causes less damage than the introduction of a reform which is unjustifiable, premature or short of financial support and human resources", (p.6).

At present, in Hungary the outside pressure for change in foreign language teaching in order to train more people who speak foreign languages seems stronger than the weakening effects. In this particular case it is the policy-makers' responsibility to gradually eliminate the hindering factors.

The last communist government recognised the need to design a new curriculum for the public education. The 1990 Amendment to the Public Education Act, passed by the same communist government, abolished the compulsory central curricula, allowed more autonomy to schools, offered a free choice of teaching materials, and restored the pedagogical autonomy of teachers (Halász 1987, 1990). The real work on a new curriculum started under the first democratically elected government; in the early 1990's several different draft versions of the NCC followed each other. A long time was needed to set up the legal framework and introduce the NCC. The third draft was accepted in 1995 and introduced in 1998 by the succeeding social-liberal government as the current NCC (Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001). The NCC for the first time in Hungary's history abandoned the over-centralisation and overregulation of the curriculum. It introduced a two-tier system, in which the NCC represented the higher level, setting the objectives in the form of loose output requirements, whereas the local curricula, which were supposed to be designed by the schools themselves, represented the lower level. The local curricula provided the course content, materials, the teaching hours allocated to school subjects and the representation of local needs. The schools were required to work out their local school curriculum on the basis of the requirements set by the NCC.

The NCC covers ten different knowledge areas and sets the minimum requirements and the requirements beyond minimum level. It defines what students should be able to do at the end of every two-year period. This way the NCC tries to control output instead of input (Nikolov, 1999b).

Since it was introduced by the Minister of Education the NCC has provoked debates and a lot of disagreement. One source of heavy criticism involved the process of designing the NCC, which has been widely considered as controversial. The curriculum designers had been randomly chosen, and it was unpredictable whether their services were retained throughout the process or dispensed with at a certain stage. Other experts, materials writers, examination experts, higher education specialists, schools, pedagogical institutes were also invited to comment on the different versions of the NCC. It has never been made public what happened to a lot of this feedback and how in the end the latest version was finalised (Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001).

Uncertain responsibilities in the educational decision-making structure also make matters even more complicated. The Ministry of Education has never published a transparent set of responsibilities for ministry officials, not even for university deans and professionals who are commissioned to carry out professional work for the Ministry. The situation can be well illustrated by the example that there is no person known at the Ministry of Education who is responsible for secondary school foreign language teaching affairs.

Other debates have been provoked by the fact that not all teachers are happy about their new freedom and autonomy. A lot of them claim that overburdened and underpaid teachers cannot be expected to take on more work. Also, a lot of professionals argue that most teachers are not trained in curriculum design (Bell, 1983, Nunan, 1987, Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000), and that other professional bodies should provide schools with curricula.

In spite of the difficulties, the latest version of the NCC may be considered progressive in certain aspects. It offers freedom to schools in selecting and grading content and choosing methodologies and materials. Furthermore, traditional subject areas are arranged in integrated knowledge areas, in order to get rid of the strict subject boundaries across the curriculum. This decision was also criticised heavily on the grounds that such a system was alien to Hungarian educational traditions, and there were no teachers available to teach such integrated subject areas. These knowledge areas have never reached the schools and the subsequent examination reform still defines its requirements in terms of traditional school subjects. In contrast with the British core curriculum (which defines assessment at the end of each developmental stage and then compares achievement with national standards) the Hungarian NCC does not include any reference to student assessment (Ballér, 1996). In conclusion, while the NCC broke new ground, it is full of contradictions.

3.3 The latest developments in the life of the NCC

Education was also a political football: the development of the NCC suffered from the constant fights of the conservative and the social-liberal parties. The succeeding democratic governments after 1990 have followed the deplorable practice of young

democracies: they have rejected and cancelled most of their predecessors' decisions. After elections each new government replaces not only the top ministry officials but practically the whole ministry personnel, perhaps with the exception of the cleaning staff. It therefore takes time - as long as two years - for a new government to start dealing with issues at a professional level.

The liberalisation of education slowed down after a new (conservative) government was formed in 1998. The former social-liberal government's policy was to give more freedom to schools and teachers, whereas the conservative government went back to the centralising traditions. The Ministry of Education decided to introduce a *three-tier system* instead of the *two-tier system,* by placing *frame curricula* between the NCC and the local curricula. According to the Ministry's concept the knowledge areas are divided into school-subjects again and frame curricula for each subject and every school-type have been developed by education experts. The introduction of the frame curricula has weakened the concept of regulating education by basic compulsory content and standardised examinations. In the future it is not the schools' responsibility to decide how they reach the goals set by the NCC, but the frame curricula will regulate for each school type the contents and levels to be reached in each subject for every two-year stage, with the number of hours needed for achieving that particular goal. (Kerettanterv, 2000) The schools are still required to develop their local curricula, but in accordance with the frame curricula. The new system gives schools very limited freedom and space within which to manoeuvre. The frame curricula were introduced in the 2001/2002 school-year, and have already been regarded by many professionals as returning to the centralised system.

3.4 Modern Languages in the NCC

Modern languages, which comprise one of the ten cultural domains, represent real progress in the NCC. The document emphasises the need to speak foreign languages and adopt European norms, which is in line with Hungary's new membership of the European Union. The NCC, like all the educational documents relating to foreign-language education since 1989, has been designed 'euroconform', "more specifically, they have adopted the Functional-Notional Syllabus and advocated humanistic and communicative principles in education" (Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001, p.12). The NCC

sets the requirements, similarly to the other knowledge areas, for three development stages, for the end of year 6, 8 and 10 (ages 12, 14 and 16). For years 11 and 12 (ages 17 and 18) the detailed requirements of the new school-leaving examination were supposed to determine the standards. With the introduction of the frame curricula, the standard setting role of the examination has weakened, and the detailed requirements of the examination have been revised according to the frame curricula. The NCC requirements define the programme content for foreign languages in terms of communicative functions, notions and topics. For the developmental stages they also set the minimum and above achievement level for the four language skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening. The requirements are also set for fluency, accuracy and style. The NCC also defines the volume of active and passive vocabulary (Horváth, Jilly, Szálkáné, 1995). The principles of the NCC are based on the philosophy of the Council of Europe recommendations (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001) in that

- they set the aim for foreign language teaching to develop communicative competence
- they are organised around functions, notions and topics
- they emphasise the appropriate language use according to the situation and the status of the participants in order to develop sociolinguistic competence
- they also reflect the need to develop text competence (e.g. writing in different genres), strategic competence (e.g. guessing meaning from context) and sociocultural competence (e.g. being familiar with important cultural values of the English-speaking countries).

The NCC does not set teaching hours, though it reflects certain educational policy requirements:

- The teaching of the first foreign language should start in the 5th year (to 11-year olds)
- The first foreign language should be taught for at least 6 years
- If the school has the financial resources, the teaching of a second foreign language is recommended and the starting age of the first foreign language can be lowered.

The foreign languages section of the NCC came in for heavy criticism (Petneki, 1998) because:

- in contrast with the Council of Europe recommendations it sets the starting age for the first foreign language relatively late
- it does not render the second foreign language compulsory.

The frame curricula seem to have remedied these deficiencies by lowering the starting year for the first foreign language to year 4, and declaring a second foreign language compulsory for the last three years of secondary education. The frame curricula also set a minimum number of hours per week (3 hours) for both the first and second foreign language. Another positive aspect of the frame curricula is that they set the required achievement levels according to the levels set by the Council of Europe. Consequently, if the system is introduced properly, the levels of Hungarian students' language proficiency will be comparable. These undoubtedly positive features are weakened by the aforementioned serious drawbacks of reappearing overregulation. In terms of functions, notions and topics the content requirements for the developmental stages are described in such detail that they resemble the content pages of a coursebook, leaving very little space for individual planning.

Neither the NCC nor the frame curricula include recommendations concerning skills development methodologies, task types, classroom management forms, evaluation techniques, error treatment, classroom language development or study skills development. All of this is in spite of the fact that the Common European Framework document declares these as key areas for the national curricula.

In the process of taking over the principles of the Common European Framework, the policy-makers seem to throw the baby out with the bath water by neglecting areas that had been a valuable part of teaching English before 1990. One such feature of the NCC is that some traditional ingredients of the previous curricula (such as *Landeskunde* - the life and institutions of the target cultures as well as translation) disappeared without trace (Medgyes and Miklósy, 2000). Finally, requirements have only been set for the four skills, speaking, writing, listening and reading - in line with the Council of Europe documents.

3.5 The ELT curriculum and the Examination Reform

The Hungarian educational experts agree that the NCC is an up-to date, high-quality and progressive curriculum which bears comparison with its counterparts developed and introduced in Britain, France, Spain or Finland (Ballér, 1996, Kovács, 1999). At this point it is worth examining how the school-leaving examination, the system which is responsible for the output-regulation of the primary and secondary education has been involved in the curriculum reform.

Secondary-school students take a complex school-leaving examination at the end of the 12th year of their studies. Ábrahám and Jilly (1999) reveal that the examination is partly centralised, with the written part centrally developed and the oral examinations set up and administered locally along centrally provided guidelines for each type of school. The basic foreign language exam for the grammar schools is taken by students who have 3-5 contact hours a week. There is no text-level writing task in this paper, and apart from the Use of English component the written paper includes a translation from English into Hungarian. The Use of English paper usually (but not necessarily) includes a short reading comprehension task. The paper for the special classes (with a higher number of contact hours) involves a letter-writing task instead of the translation. However, this assessment is taken by a small minority (in 1995/96 out of 15,186 grammar-school students only 908 wrote the special exam paper, and in 1996/97 the number was 902 out of 16,619), as most of the students attending these special classes have already passed the State Language Examination (a profit-oriented language examination recognised nationwide by employers and higher education institutions) and are exempted from taking the school-leaving exam. Neither paper tests listening comprehension.

The study also provides structured interview results with 22 teachers from different regions of Hungary and different school-types. The results show that most of the teachers would prefer a creative writing task (some defined it as a guided composition) instead of the translation.

The study concludes that there is no continuity and stability in the production of the present exams; testing principles, structure of the tests and difficulty level keep

changing. There are no proper test specifications, and there is no analysis of the results either. The tests are grammar focused, target a limited number of skills, and lag behind communicative teaching methods. There are no proper criteria for marking the written and the oral exam, and there is no training for the markers and examiners. There has never been a report published on passed papers. Another important weakness of the examination is that it lacks prestige; all of the higher education institutions and employers award extra bonuses for different language examination certificates except the school-leaving examination certificate (Halápi and Király, 1999).

The social-liberal government made a central decision in 1996 to re-establish the prestige of the school-leaving examination. The decision was made to develop a new comparable and reliable examination, which is to be introduced in May 2005 after year 12 (age 18). Originally another examination was also planned at the end of year 10, but the idea was later abandoned. No policy decisions have been taken as to whether there will be other standardised assessment introduced at the end of other development stages defined in the NCC. The new Matura examination will test the school-leavers at two levels. The intermediate examination will test every student graduating from secondary education, and the advanced examination can be chosen by those who wish to study further at universities and colleges (Nikolov, 1999b).

The new examination originally was meant to have a strong standard setting and output regulating function by its detailed requirements. This function has been partly taken over by the detailed regulations of the frame curricula. The conceptual framework of the Examination Reform included three basic principles: the same examination should be available in all types of secondary schools; it should be standardised; and it should be available at two levels. The professional English language examination development work has been going on since 1998 with great difficulties: contradicting policy-decisions, lack of funding and competing ministry agencies hinder meaningful work. One of the biggest dangers is that at the moment there is central marking only for the higher-level examination, however, double marking of the papers is not possible. Furthermore, central administration of the oral paper in the lower-level examination is not a prescribed requirement. The government's unprofessional decisions are surely due to financial considerations, as central marking and oral test administration require enormous financial investment into resources and training. Still, if such decisions are

not taken in the near future, the main achievement of the reform, the reliability and comparability of the examination will be weakened.

3.6 The teachers and the curriculum reform

In theory, any stakeholder may initiate action, but in practice teachers (not to speak of students) can seldom make their voices heard beyond their classrooms or schools. Specialists are usually in a better position to influence policy-makers (Kaplan, 1992). Medgyes and Nikolov (2001) also express similar doubts saying that if there is a gap between policy-makers and specialists, the gap between either group and teachers is far wider, and this might be the reason why it is a long time before curriculum innovation starts influencing the thinking and practice of those who are actually at the chalkface.

Throughout these years of heated debates and continuously re-written policy documents, teachers have been left out of real discussions. As a result, they have continued teaching programmes that had little to do with the current version of politician-specialist wisdom. Teachers in most cases are, as Bell claims, "consumers of other people's syllabuses" (1983). A top-down model of curriculum development, where politicians commission theorists to develop aims, objectives, content specifications and assessment criteria for education becomes appellant. The teachers' task is to implement what has been decided for them, resulting in teachers adopting a *hidden curriculum* (Stenhouse, 1975): regardless of the aspirations, suggestions and regulations of the new decisions, they try to change as little in their teaching as possible. Similarly, after 1990, whatever curriculum design project was going on above their heads, Hungarian teachers grabbed the newly gained freedom as well as they could, which for a lot of them meant teaching the same way as before. The only thing that changed for all teachers was that they started teaching mostly from British course materials designed for communicative language teaching, with the major emphasis on developing language skills needed in real-life situations. Young, well-trained teachers have been able to utilise the situation with better results, whereas the older generation has not been able or motivated to move further from the old methods of drilling, reading and translating in the classroom.

A study investigating Hungarian teachers' classroom practices (Nikolov, 1999a) also reveals a rather eclectic mixture of approaches, methods and techniques: communicative approaches aiming at developing language skills for real-life interactions are mixed with the Grammar-Translation and the Audio-Lingual Methods. The imported communication-based coursebooks are exploited in most classrooms in a traditional way. As both younger and older teachers are underpaid, they do not have much interest in putting effort either into learning new and more effective teaching methods or meeting the higher requirements of a professionally demanding new National Core Curriculum. In the practice of most teachers the coursebook functions as a syllabus. Conscientious teachers supplement the course material with state language exam preparation materials. Under the given circumstances the operation of the hidden curriculum is Hungarian language teachers' survival strategy. The conclusion that "it is little wonder that the lack of a stable NCC has caused little trouble in the school-life of post-communist Hungary" (Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001, p. 15.) seems only logical.

In Hungary education is still a low priority in the state budget. Teachers are unable to fight for better conditions due to divided interests and the fight for everyday survival. Research data show that professionally most teachers are interested in the reform, but they have no time and energy to put active effort into it (Bárány *et al.*, 1999). Since 1989 teachers in Hungary have not been able to fight for better conditions. Even teachers themselves claim that their going on strike would not put enough pressure on the government, which, among other things, shows their low confidence and self-esteem. Teachers (and other state employees) fight the devaluation of their salaries on an individual basis; continuously moonlighting whilst missing meetings or fighting within the trade unions. At present there are no powerful teachers' associations and the trade unions seem powerless.

Research data (Ábrahám *et al.*, Halápi *et al.*, Nikolov, 1999b) also reveal that teachers are not ready for the curricular and examination reform, demonstrating a behaviour that combines professional interest in theory with passive resistance in practice. Policy-makers have not yet come up with decisions that would start eliminating this hindering factor. As a member of the European Union, Hungary has to recognise that reflecting European norms in documents is not enough. Fullan has warned that premature changes, "large plans and vague ideas make a lethal combination" (1982, p.102 cited in

Medgyes and Nikolov, 2001). This will not, hopefully, characterise the Hungarian educational reform.

3.7 Conclusion

The Hungarian National Core Curriculum is a good example of a reform curriculum that most stakeholders support in theory, but where the conditions for implementation have not been prepared carefully enough. It reflects good intention and advocates up-to-date professional principles, but at the same time it does not take the genuine needs of the classroom participants and the size of necessary financial investment into consideration. Nevertheless, the decision-makers try to enforce the new system.

Throughout the development period of the NCC in Hungary the Ministry officials were unable to negotiate acceptable terms for all participants and made decisions without their consent. The history of the NCC in Hungary reflects how political decision-makers' top-down decisions attempt to influence education and how slowly, if ever, these decisions make an impact on what is really going on in the classroom. Hungary is a good example of Pratt and Short's description: "a considerable body of knowledge concerning curriculum has emerged in the course of the 20th century, so far its impact on actual school practice is minimal" (1994, p.1325).

As has been claimed, it is the policy-makers who have the power to initiate changes and win teachers over. Without this no real breakthrough can be expected. More effective teacher training, incentives for teachers to participate in in-service training, security, and prestige to the teaching profession could enhance the changes. Specialists cannot take over politicians' responsibilities; their task is to provide the professional resources. They can, however, prepare the professional foundation for development. As teacher training institutions are closer to the classrooms than policy-makers they can greatly contribute to the educational reform by improving training and advocating progressive theories and practices. Pre-service training courses can make it possible for the newly trained teachers (at least those who stay in schools) to introduce different practices in their schools. Furthermore, setting up in-service training courses could contribute to providing a methodology and language update for practising teachers. At the moment there is some incentive for teachers to participate as getting extra qualification through

in-service training earns higher salary for the participant. This is the field where the present research will hopefully contribute to implementing progressive approaches and effective methods in school practice. One of the four skills -writing- forms the focus for investigating what the present school practice involves, what are the needs of the students, and what changes are necessary to implement.

The research carried out by the author of the present thesis on teachers' beliefs regarding their competence and teaching skills in teaching writing aimed at contributing to the successful implementation of the Hungarian curriculum and examination reform. The investigation of the area was necessary as teaching writing is a neglected area in Hungarian schools (see Chapter 5); students' performance is weak in text-level writing (see Chapters 5 and 6); no research has been completed in Hungary on teachers' competence and training needs in the field; students are required to master practical text-level writing competence for certain jobs after secondary school and academic writing skills for university studies (Ábrahám *et al.,* 1999, Halápi *et al.*, 1999); the new final examination to be launched in 2005 - in contrast with the present one - has a text-level writing component, and last but not least, in order to have competent teachers who can prepare students for the new examination and help them acquire skills needed for professional and academic purposes it is important to know their present competence and training needs. The research results provide ample information for training institutions as to what training teachers need in this field in order to be able to teach effective communicative writing and to prepare their students for the new Matura Examination.

4. Writing as a language skill - the theoretical background of teaching writing

Having given an overview of the present state of foreign language teaching in Hungary and of the underlying political, educational, economic and social processes the research explores theories that applied research has come up with in the field of teaching writing. As one of the aims of the research is to investigate the present situation in the teaching of writing in the Hungarian secondary schools and find ways of improving this practice, it is necessary to look into what research in applied linguistics and language pedagogy has to say about the role of writing in the second and foreign language teaching curriculum and what approaches and methods it offers.

4.1 Language acquisition versus language learning and their implications for foreign language teaching

As learning to write in a foreign language cannot be treated separately from the complex and still mysterious processes operating in language learning, it is necessary to sum up the latest views as to how second and foreign languages are learnt or acquired. The attempt to understand this process will make it possible to find more effective ways of helping students to reach communicative competence [1] both in speaking and writing, and of training teachers how to facilitate that process.

Most researchers investigating language acquisition and learning do not put special emphasis on differentiating between second and foreign language learning. According to Littlewood second language "...indicates that the language has communicative functions inside the community where the learner lives" (1984, p.55). In Hungary

[1] Rivers (1983) describes the layers of communicative competence as follows: "If they <students> were really to communicate with speakers of the language, they needed to know the *culturally acceptable ways of interacting orally with others* – appropriate levels of language for different situations and different relationships; conversational openers and gambits and when it was appropriate to use these; how to negotiate meaning in various circumstances, and when and how to use appropriate gestures and body language; the message content of pitch, loudness, and intonation patterns; the questions and comments that are acceptable and unacceptable in the culture; and the importance of distance in communicative encounters".

students live outside English-speaking communities, in this context Hungarian teachers deal with English as a foreign language. In spite of the fact that learners of English as a second language have more opportunities to be exposed to the language and practise it 'live', research does not find significant differences between learning English as a second (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL). In the present research it is accepted that second language acquisition models are also valid for the processes of approaching communicative competence in foreign languages. Naturally, in EFL the process will be longer as there is less additional input or practice opportunity outside the classroom. Certain, mostly informal or culturally loaded elements will not become part of students' language as these are not part of the course material, and most non-native teachers do not have them at their disposal. Neither will students have the opportunity to pick up such elements in the language community. Despite the existing differences the sources the author of this research examined in the research area treated second and foreign languages the same way (Krashen, 1987; Littlewood 1984).

Krashen (1977a) distinguishes acquisition from learning. He claims that acquisition is the result of 'creative construction' by which the learner internalises the rules of the second language (L2) subconsciously; it takes place naturally and cannot be enhanced by instruction. In contrast 'learning' is a conscious process of formal study. Krashen argues that children and adults are capable of both acquiring and learning a second language. He claims that in spontaneous speech the learner's acquired knowledge governs the language use, but in some contexts learned knowledge may monitor the utterances that are initiated from the acquired store. He also states that in written examinations all productions are likely to be monitored by learnt knowledge. According to this view for successful language learning all the three components are necessary: acquisition, learning and efficient monitoring. Krashen's Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines their relationship. The acquisition system initiates the utterance, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor'. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor should be weak, being used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech and to give speech a more native-like appearance. Krashen also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to 'monitor': learners who use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users); learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users) and learners who use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal

users). Krashen also claims that an evaluation of the person's psychological profile can help to determine to which group they belong. Extroverts tend to be under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. Lack of self-confidence is frequently related to the over-use of the 'monitor'. One way of interpreting communicative language teaching is to look into what is needed to develop acquired and learnt knowledge, and effective monitoring skills.

Analysing second language acquisition theories Krashen comes to the conclusion that "Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill. It does not occur overnight, however. Real language acquisition develops slowly, and speaking skills emerge significantly later than listening skills, even when conditions are perfect. The best methods are therefore those that supply 'comprehensive input' in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear" (1987, (p. 6-7). In his view "...speaking fluency cannot be taught directly. Rather it 'emerges' over time, on its own" (p. 22). As Krashen argues further, language production cannot be expected as an automatic result of input and practice: "...acquisition is slow and subtle, while learning is fast and, for some people obvious" (p.187). By the two dominant factors in the process of second language acquisition, 'comprehensive input' and 'low anxiety', Krashen emphasises two crucial features that teachers should consider: students must be exposed to language that they can make sense of and that stress should be eliminated from the process as much as possible. As for more traditional practice he states that "There is no evidence, for example, that practising cloze tests in class helps the student acquire more of the language, or improves performances on cloze tests" (p.178). By citing Stevick (1980), "Language curriculum and tests are designed by people like us, people who learn quickly and who derive satisfaction from it", he reminds us that we should take into consideration different learners' needs, aptitude and attitude in the classroom.

Although in Krashen's view learnt knowledge does not turn into acquired knowledge, he acknowledges that conscious learning in the classroom and acquisition do not exclude each other. He states that a distinction has to be made between conscious learning and acquisition, and that the teacher has to be aware how conscious efforts will lead to enhancing acquisition. Littlewood also holds the view that "...learning consists of the global (rather than piece-meal) elaboration of an internal system, whose

individual parts are integrated with each other from the outset" (p.76). In his view this development is spontaneous and subconscious. Second language acquisition theories reject the skill learning model of second language learning, according to which language competence can be consciously developed in a step-by-step manner, the individual parts of the system eventually becoming integrated with each other. According to these views second language learning is similar to first language acquisition. Littlewood also supports the view that the knowledge of the language does not come from the traditional model that underlies most teaching:

Input from instruction → Productive activity → System assimilated by learners → Spontaneous utterances

but rather from a process that is similar to first language acquisition, which he calls the 'creative construction model' (p.73):

Input from exposure → Internal processing → System constructed by learners → Spontaneous utterances

This process naturally involves errors and mistakes, similar to first language acquisition, as the learners' system is gradually approaching the native user's. As for relating to students' errors Krashen states that "error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive" (p.75), and "error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning" (p.10). Accepting this view, in the language classroom error correction should be applied carefully as it does not have such a favourable effect on language production as teachers used to think and neither does it contribute to a low-anxiety environment.

Based on his acquisition model Krashen puts forward further qualities that good teaching and good teachers should own: "The effective language teacher is someone who can provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation"(p.32). He also finds it important not to insist on too-early production, and recommends pleasure reading and conversation with native speakers as two effective types of input. He points out that "Optimal input focuses the acquirer on the message

and not on the form" (p.66). Among existing teaching methods Krashen has found that Suggestopaedia (see Appendix 1) comes very close to matching the requirements for optimal input and low affective filter.

In his recent research Krashen (2001) finds that input in the mother tongue enhances the process of second language acquisition. He concludes that if schools give children a good education in their first language, children get knowledge and literacy. Both the knowledge and the literacy they develop in their first language help English language development enormously. He argues that the knowledge children learn using their mother tongue makes what they hear and read in English much more comprehensible. This will result in more language acquisition and more learning in general; consequently, developing literacy in the first language is a shortcut to English literacy.

The practising teacher's reaction to the second language acquisition theory will be: if language competence seems to be uncontrollable, does it mean that systematic practice in skills, grammar and vocabulary is a sheer waste of time? How can the teacher design a syllabus that is able to enhance acquisition? Is it possible that there is no way for the learnt knowledge to get through to the acquired competence?

Ellis (1985), based on Krashen's acquisition model, has found that conscious learning is not irrelevant to the processes underlying language acquisition. He claims that as acquisition is a natural process when the learner picks up the language, the principal criterion for acquisition must be the provision of authentic environment. If the teacher's aim is to enhance acquisition no pre-prepared syllabus is possible. A methodology that will enhance acquisition must ensure that the learner is free to find his own route, it must facilitate rather than prescribe learning. The teacher functions as 'onlooker' or partner. A more traditional methodology based on presentation, practice, production and formal correction does not meet the requirements of the methodology for acquisition. Brumfit (1979) has also argued that fluency can be developed best by a methodology in which learners first communicate with their available resources, then comes the presentation and drilling if a need arises. Ellis claims that the programme that is the closest to acquisition-based learning, which consistently encourages authentic communication, is Community Language Learning (see Stevick, 1976; Appendix 1).

Ellis recognises the possibility of combining learning and acquisition to facilitate communicative competence. Apart from 'informal communicative approaches' that are based on purely acquisition enhancing methods, Ellis recognises 'formal communicative approaches' that are based on learning and the development of appropriate monitoring skills, and must be based on "descriptions of the language as activity". Such approaches will follow traditional language teaching in selecting and grading items of knowledge, and are based on needs analysis as a basis for selection. Ellis does not agree with Krashen's views according to which no transfer is possible from the learned to the acquired knowledge. He claims that such a view seems contrary to the experience of many language learners. He comes to the conclusion that if such transfer takes place, formal communicative approaches are not irrelevant for acquisition, if opportunity for authentic communication is also available either inside or outside the classroom.

Ellis also states that in many kinds of language activities learning has crucial importance (e.g. literacy skills, formal writing, constructing logical arguments, giving a lecture, writing a report). Where skills cannot be picked up, then formal teaching is required. Ellis concludes that the learner becomes a better communicator by learning rules of use, and practising how to apply these in monitoring activities that are cognitively challenging. Kress (1994) argues that for native speakers learning to write is also controlled by mental processes that characterise learning rather than acquisition: "It may be that in learning to write children have to learn some of these forms anew, learning them through conscious exploration and understandings (p.143)". Krashen also acknowledges the importance of learning in the development of writing. He states that the foreign learner who has become a proficient speaker of the language still might have some gaps for non-acquired items, which can be filled by the use of conscious grammar: "This can, in writing at least, occasionally result in native-like accuracy (1994, p.90)".

Having analysed the second language acquisition theories it may be concluded that for practical reasons school-based acquisition programmes would be impossible to implement in most schools. Teachers' most important task most probably is to enhance the 'flow' from the learnt store to the acquired store.

As the evidence of the Classroom Observation Project (see Chapter 6) shows most classrooms in Hungary follow the model of skill- and grammar-based teaching with not enough emphasis on motivating and enabling students to interact in English in meaningful situations. There is stress on error correction and the threatening atmosphere of grades is present. School practice is still far from realising the above mentioned features, still, through in- and pre-service teaching they have started to gradually penetrate the classrooms.

4.2 Communicative language teaching - the remedy?

Numerous applied linguists and educators claim the most affective method in foreign language teaching is the so called Communicative approach (see Appendix 1). Ellis (1982) gives some clarity to the use of the fashionable term 'communicative'. He claims that two major trends in language teaching have developed since the beginning of the 70's. The first recognises that successful language learning does not depend only on good materials and teaching but also on the strategies that the learner employs. Learners actively construct their syllabuses, which highly influences their learning route. The second trend "concerns the nature of the linguistic descriptions which serves as the basis for language teaching approaches. There has been a shift from descriptions that treat language as an independent and unitary system to descriptions that treat language as a form of social activity (p.73)". These two trends together contribute to the concept of communicative language teaching. 'Communicative language teaching' has become a catchphrase applied to widely different materials, practices, syllabuses. This suggests that it has no clearly defined meaning, it is not one method but a variety of approaches. Based on Krashen's monitor model (1977a, 1977b) Ellis has developed his earlier described 'formal' and 'informal' communicative approaches to language teaching. All approaches agree that language learners are communicators and the learning process should enable them to convey the intended meaning appropriately in different social contexts.

Swan (1985a, 1985b) criticises certain features of some communicative approaches because they fail to develop the learner's communicative competence (the ability to use structures and words appropriately, express notions, perform communicative functions, use productive and receptive skills and strategies, negotiate meaning successfully, create

cohesive and coherent text, relate code to context) due to the over-simplification of the semantic or functional syllabuses. He argues that the teaching of functions and notions cannot replace the teaching of grammar. He agrees with Brumfit (1978) that the grammatical system is a describable and limited number of rules that enables the learner to produce a huge number of utterances which they can use in combination with paralinguistic and semiotic knowledge to express any function. He also claims that syllabuses, in contrast with the functional syllabuses, need to be based on word-frequency and structures as well. Functional syllabuses often do not cover important vocabulary and structures as they are not closely related to any function. The author concludes that it is essential to consider both semantic and formal issues when deciding what to teach. The real task is how to integrate functional, notional, situational, topic-based, phonological and lexical structural skills into a sensible syllabus. He gives voice to what a lot of teachers feel: guilt about not being communicative, though, he claims, they should realise that even when they do structure drill, they might be working towards communicative competence if otherwise their teaching involves authentic interaction and is as lifelike as possible. He brings up a very convincing argument to support and justify pre-planned non-authentic practice, namely that artificial practice is part of a lot of activities outside language when we are rehearsing for the real activity, and that such practice enhances the success of the real act later (e.g. mechanical playing scales for a future violin player or kittens 'hunting' on the carpet). Therefore teachers should not feel guilty if they include in their teaching some drilling, translating, rote learning, repetition. He also argues that a lot of colourful activities in communicative materials fail as they do not build on the natural relevance and interest for the learners. Consequently, personal involvement is essential and should be exploited in the classroom. Besides criticising the weaker or exaggerated aspects of the communicative approach, the author acknowledges the huge contribution it made to foreign language teaching: "... helped us to analyse and teach the language of interaction. At the same time, it has encouraged a methodology which relies less on mechanical teacher-centred practice and more on the simulation of real-life exchanges. All this is very valuable, and even if (as with religions) there is a good deal of confusion on the theoretical side, it is difficult not to feel that we are teaching better than we used to" (p.87). He summarises the positive practice communicative language teaching advocates: "The important thing is that students should be exposed to appropriate samples of language and given

relevant and motivating activities to help them learn. This is what the Communicative Approach does" (1985b, p.11).

Littlewood (2004) argues that the most efficient realisation of the communicative approach is task-based learning. He comes to the conclusion that tasks associated with 'realistic language use' provide opportunities for relatively life-like language use, focusing the learner's attention on a task, problem, activity, or topic, and not on a particular language point. He agrees with Dörnyei (2001) that motivational factors (affective climate, teacher response, task characteristics, group dynamics) also have to be taken into consideration.

4.3 The relationship between first and second language acquisition

Littlewood (1984) attempts to explore the similarities and differences between first and second language acquisition. He states that in first language acquisition " ...language development is dependent on the concepts which children form about the world and the meanings which they feel stimulated to communicate" (p13). This view indicates a major difference between the two types as in second or foreign language acquisition there is no such parallel development of the cognitive and language development of the learner. Still, presumably, the two processes do not entail such a big contradiction, as in first language acquisition the child does not try to communicate only what his cognitive and linguistic capacities are working on parallelly, but what he has already processed cognitively. Consequently, a similar process is possible in second language acquisition: the already processed outside world gets a different linguistic appearance. This happens to adults whose language environment changes and after a long silent period they start producing the new language.

Littlewood has found other similarities between first and second language acquisition: "The second language learner has normally formed his basic concepts about the world, so that there cannot be the same link between language and cognitive development. Nevertheless, the link between language and concepts remains of major importance, since the second language will sometimes require the learner to develop an awareness for new concepts and distinctions" (p.14). As a teacher and a language learner the author of this paper has also often come across such new concepts, distinctions and their

language forms, such as the remains of the dual number and the living-non-living declension in Russian, or the concepts 'agony column', 'high-school prom' or 'cheerleader' in the English-speaking cultures, and hundreds of others, which the learner has to process both conceptually and linguistically as well, and which teach not only a new language but a new look upon the world.

The behaviourist view that the acquisition of the first language is so different from that of the second moved behaviourist linguists towards tying much relevance to the influence of the first language in the second language acquisition. "Whereas the first language learner is a novice so far as language habits are concerned, the second language learner already possesses a set of habits: his native language. Some of these earlier habits will help the new learning task. Others will hinder it" (Littlewood, 1984, p.17). From this it follows that "The behaviourist approach claims that we can predict difficulties and errors by means of contrastive analysis" (p.19). The behaviourist linguist Lado sums up this theory as "Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" (Lado, cited in Littlewood, 1984). However, as Littlewood sums up research on transfer, "the claim has not been strongly supported by ...evidence" (p.19). Referring to research findings in the field he states that the proportion of errors due to the influence of the mother tongue is rather low; researchers "categorised between a third and a half of learners' errors as due to transfer from the first language. We should note however, that it is not necessary to see transfer as inextricably linked to behaviourist theories of habit-formation. It can also be seen as part of a process of creative construction: the transfer of rules from the mother tongue may be one of the learner's active strategies for making sense of the second language data" (p21). Littlewood finds three possible sources of student errors in the learners' language: transfer from the mother tongue, generalisation and overgeneralization of certain rules and redundancy reduction by omitting elements. All these errors he considers a natural part of the acquisition process. Littlewood distinguishes systematic errors (that has not been part of the student's system) and performance errors or 'mistakes' or 'lapses'. He argues that "...the best evidence that an error reflects the learner's underlying system is when it appears regularly in his speech" (p.31).

4.4 Time and proficiency

Teachers and curriculum designers are in a difficult position when they try to estimate how much time is needed to achieve a certain level of proficiency. Krashen (1987) offers the United States Foreign language Institute's estimation of the class time necessary to achieve halfway between minimal professional proficiency and working professional proficiency, (which means approximately intermediate level in traditional terms), for adult English speakers. According to their chart European languages such as German, French and Italian need about 720 hours of classtime, while 'exotic' languages like Arabic, Chinese or Korean require at least 1950 hours. The source does not mention any specific language teaching method or other feature of the teaching practices.

This calculation indicates that in one foreign language it is realistic to reach working professional proficiency in the Hungarian public education, as the maximum length for studying the first foreign language is 9 years, the minimum number of hours is three/week, which results in approximately 900 taught hours. In the second foreign language most students will reach lower level of competence as it is compulsory only in the last three years of secondary-school (approximately 300 hours). Naturally, this is very rough calculation as neither methods and other characteristics of teaching nor possible native language specific features have been taken into consideration.

4.5 Why is writing difficult?

In the following sections of the Background research the relevant literature on the language skill that is the focal point of the present research, namely writing, will be explored. Every language teacher has experienced the unhappy faces of his students when a text-level writing task in the foreign or second language (e.g. a letter, an essay, etc.) is assigned in class. Why is it that writing for learners poses such great problems? Research has revealed numerous reasons (Hedge, 1988; Halliday, 1989; Kress, 1994; Tribble, 1996; Byrne, 1988). A lot of native speakers who can express themselves by using correct and rich language in speech, appropriate in the given situation, never achieve the same level in writing. Even when we have to compose a letter of complaint in our mother tongue, we chew the pen for quite a long time before we find the most suitable way of expressing our message. We should also consider that an average person

for personal purposes has to write very little in his or her mother tongue: personal letters, e-mail messages, notes, shopping lists and formal letters to the bank, a company or hotel once in a while (Hedge, 1988).

Kress (1994) claims that a special difficulty of writing instruction both in L1 and L2 is that the genres mostly taught, required and most highly prized in schools (essays, narratives, poetry) are engaged in by very few members of any society. Kress also argues that learning to write is difficult for native speaker children too. They have to learn handwriting, spelling, punctuation and capitalisation. Beyond these the native child also has to consciously learn "the syntax of written language, the textual structure of writing, the conventional forms - the genres - of writing, and with these the new cognitive modes of organising the world p.62)". In exploring why learning how to write is a painful process for the student he claims that one reason may be in the time shift between learning to speak and write. By the time children start to learn how to express themselves in writing they have acquired high proficiency in speaking. Another reason lies in the nature if writing. If written language were the same as speech and the student's task were only to code speech in writing, it would not entail much difficulty. However, the written text has its own lexical, grammatical and cohesive features that are different from those of speech. Consequently, one major reason for the difficulties might be that learning to write involves different processes from learning to speak and relies more on learning than acquisition.

Halliday (1989) also emphasises the difference between spoken and written discourse. He argues that the more 'written' the language being used then the higher the proportion of lexical words to the total number of words. This finding supports the idea that conscious and systematic vocabulary and written discourse development should accompany the teaching of writing.

Tribble (1996) states that "Current descriptions of language by linguists with an interest in its social functions stress that while in speaking the primary emphasis is on building relationships, in writing the emphasis is on recording things, on completing tasks, or on developing ideas and arguments" (p.9). He also argues that the major difficulty for foreign learners is textual rather than discoursal as if they "have already learnt how to write in their own language, then they will have acquired the essential interactive ability

underlying discourse enactment and the ability to record it in text. The problem is how to textualize discourse in a different language (p.11)".

Kharma (1986) finds similar core problems: students struggle most with sentence construction. He notes that the two main deficiencies in extended writing are the failure to handle co-ordinating and subordinating clauses, and inaccurate use of linking devices.

Byrne (1988) is of the opinion that whatever the major focus of the writing instruction, it is necessary to consider that learners are more mature when they start writing in a foreign language as compared with when they learned to write in their mother tongue. They are therefore more conscious of the limitations the foreign language imposes on the possible ways of expressing their ideas. He suggests that to solve this problem "it will be necessary to strike some sort of balance which prevents them from going beyond their linguistic attainment in the foreign language and yet will still provide them with writing activities that satisfy them on an intellectual level" (p.6).

Hedge (1988) lists reasons for difficulty teachers of foreign languages should be aware of as follows:

- the writer is on his own, cut off from the listener's reactions
- the writer is not helped by gestures, encouraging noises, the clues of the environment
- the writer cannot exploit his own pitch and tone of voice, stress, hesitation, facial expression, body movement
- the writer cannot clarify, revise ideas, backtrack according to the listener's disagreement or question
- compared with speech the writer needs a high degree of organisation to develop ideas and information, a high degree of accuracy to avoid ambiguity of meaning, a careful choice of vocabulary, structures to create the appropriate style for the subject matter and the reader, and a careful choice of grammatical devices for focus and emphasis
- there might be differences between the conventions of writing in the writer's mother tongue and English.

The author's own experience also shows that for teachers and learners working in classrooms that advocate and practise communicative approaches it is especially difficult to work on the high grammatical and organisational accuracy necessary for successful writing. This requirement is not strictly reflected in oral skills development, which emphasises getting through the message with moderate error correction. In such an environment studious work on a piece of language is a very different working mode. The author's previous teacher training and language teaching experience also shows that it is more difficult to find meaningful and motivating tasks for writing development than for speaking.

Arndt's (1987) study of the composing process of university students have made considerable contribution to exploring difficulties the writing process involves. Arndt reports one exploratory study of six Chinese EFL students on the way they produced academic written texts both in their mother tongue and English. The comparative study exploring L1 (mother tongue) and L2 (second language) writing suggests that L2 composing is, despite the language burdens involved, very similar to composing in L1. Edelsky's (1982) comparison of the L1 and L2 writing of bilingual learners supports the idea that the knowledge writers already have about the writing process in their mother tongue "is applied to rather than interferes with writing in another language" (p.214). He finds that the composing skills of proficient writers of L2 are similar to those of proficient L1 writers. Arndt's protocol analysis study (writers are asked to compose aloud into tape recorders, verbalising as much as possible of their thoughts as they write; then the transcribed 'protocols' are analysed and compared to the written texts produced) suggests that L1 writers whose writing skills are efficient and effective in their mother tongue are likely to have similar skills in L2 writing. The results reveal that the individual writers have very different cognitive styles, capacities and approaches, and that certain problems were shared by all of them regardless of which language they were composing in, namely an inadequate awareness of the properties of the written language. The research revealed that none of the writers dealt with the problems of gearing message to intended audience with sufficient thoroughness. The construction of explicit, coherent meaning proved to be the most difficult part of the writing task in both languages. It was also found that strict planning and adherence to precise writing rules often hindered the text generation. The study concludes that teachers may help better their students by encouraging post-planning than pre-planning due not only to the

recursive, non-linear nature of the writing process, but also to "the enormous generative power of the actual activity of writing itself" (p.263). The author found that a rather big proportion of what was generated in speech was omitted from the texts. For example, connections between ideas or paragraphs, elaborations and clarifications, which would have resulted in more cohesive texture; opinions and judgements which might have helped to bring the text to life. The students participating in the experiment expressed hostility to the artificiality of most school-set assignments, and stated that if they had to write about something they were interested in, the task would become less burdensome, even possibly enjoyable. This suggests that an important teaching task is to convince students of the importance of personal involvement even in academic writing, the commitment to "a particular attitude to what you want to say" (Wason, 1981b).

Because of the special features of teaching writing and the above mentioned difficulties Byrne (1988) warns that the writing programme, especially at post-elementary to intermediate level, should not lose direction and momentum. The programme should be carefully planned "to develop a mastery of new skills, which the learners can use for a continually expanding range of tasks" (p.48).

Byrne (1988) lists other important guidelines for teachers and training programmes to make writing skills development more successful and less painful:

- writing requires special teaching
- wide exposure to appropriate models of written language is needed
- awareness raising needed in how to communicate through the written medium
- teaching to write different types of texts is necessary
- writing tasks should be made realistic and relevant
- writing should be integrated with other skills
- teachers should be able to use a variety of techniques and practice formats
- teachers should provide appropriate support
- teachers should be sympathetic

4.6 Why teach writing?

Few people need to achieve a high level of expressiveness in writing: they tend to be the journalists, writers, public figures and some other professionals for whom the special written language of their profession is indispensable. Why then do students both of the mother tongue and foreign languages have to go through the suffering of writing instruction, which involves a lot of essay writing as well? Byrne (1988) summarises the problem by saying "...writing is a skill which is both limited in value and difficult to acquire" (p.6).

Still, there seem to be strong reasons for including writing instruction in the school curriculum. Primary and secondary education is responsible for educating students in a wide range of knowledge areas and has to provide for various prospective careers of the students. Also writing is a traditional medium of education; it is used for formal and informal testing in all school-types. It is also evident that students need to achieve certain writing skills in the mother tongue to be able to perform the necessary personal and social writing throughout their lives and develop them further if necessary for their future career. Byrne (1988), stating that it is important to write even at an early age, lists other reasons as well: writing provides for different learning styles, provides tangible evidence of learning, helps to rely on several media and provides variety in activities.

Kress (1994) underlines the high social prestige of possessing good writing skills and argues that for this reason written language has a constant effect on the spoken language, and "this is particularly true for speakers who wish to gain social, economic and political power (p.10)". He emphasises the communicative value of the written text as well by arguing that "...a text is produced out of some element of difference: difference of knowledge, of power, of solidarity, of affect" (p.223). He also warns that in schools the motive for writing should not be the difference of power: "What follows from this for educational settings in which one group of people are constantly required to produce texts in a situation where for them the only discernible difference may be that of power between teacher and child". Kress holds the view that the ability to write and the skill to write in different genres has special social value in a society. Writing is a prestigious skill both in the mother tongue and in the foreign language. He states that the learning of genres "is therefore intimately linked with the codification of knowledge

in a society, and with modes of organising and communicating information to others. This represents a vast convenience to society and no doubt to individuals. If our modes of establishing, encoding, organising and transmitting knowledge differed markedly from individual to individual, there is doubt that society would be quite different and probably far less efficient (p.124)".

Boughey (1997) and Weigle (2002) emphasise that writing facilitates learning by giving thought permanence, which allows writers to reconsider, clarify, and revise ideas or concepts more readily than if they had not been written down. In order to capitalise on the relationship between writing and learning therefore, many of our students need to learn to write.

Weigle (2002) highlights the increasing need for writing in the modern world. She argues that writing is not the domain of the elite any more; the ability to write effectively is becoming more and more important in our global society. As the new developments in technology and transportation allow people from different nations throughout the world to communicate with each other, the ability to speak and write in foreign languages is becoming more recognised as important skills to develop in the educational systems.

Kress (1994) claims that "The decade of the 1980s has witnessed far-reaching changes in ways of thinking and in kinds of research as much as in educational practices around reading and writing (p.194)". Considering all the reasons that justify the importance of writing instruction, the author of the present research tends to agree with Byrne (1988), who claims that in spite of their importance and the development of research in the field writing skills are still neglected in many courses.

4.7 The process writing-product writing debate

Battles in second/foreign language writing research have been pitched between first and second/foreign language writing theories, and between process and product-oriented writing approaches since the early 1980s (Dyer, 1996). Since the mid 1970s, first and second language teachers in the United States have been involved in the process writing model, which "typically carries students through a cycle of pre-writing talk, free

writing, peer feedback, and revision" (p.313). The teacher, as facilitator, does not assign specific topics, set up evaluation criteria, demonstrate models for good writing or assign grammar exercises (Lawrence, 1975; Zamel 1976, 1980). The underlying idea was that students learn how to write by writing (Dyer, 1996). By the 1980s strong criticism appeared against process-based writing instruction. Horowitz (1986a) claims that there are as many processes as many writing tasks, and that the process-oriented approach fails to prepare students for examinations in essay writing or highly structured assignments. He also claims that it fails to take into account the many forces outside the writer's control which define and shape a piece of writing (1986b). According to Horowitz the process instruction does not take into consideration the needs of students. Swales (1986) advocates the task-based approach to writing, which emphasises the relationship between the writer, the writing environment and the intended readership. The notion of 'tasks' results from a pragmatic isolation of the tasks that learners need to master to survive in English academic communities (Dyer, 1996). The task-based instruction has also been supported by psycholinguistic, linguistic, and cognitive research which shows that language structures are not acquired separately, and linearly, but rather subconsciously in meaningful units, when the student focuses on meaning, not language (Long, 1992). Dyer supports the idea that pure process or product writing instruction should shift to a task-specific process/product hybrid: "the pendulum in L2 composition theory has swung from 'process' but not back to the traditional rhetorical 'product': rather, task-based writing instruction merges process and product in the concept of the communicative 'task'"(p.314).

The use of communicative writing tasks also enhances the natural combination of all skills. Discussing topics, listening to each other, reading sources, reading each other's writing create a more natural situation for communication, and develops different language skills at the same time. Raimes (1983) emphasises skills integration and the point that the written text should become reading for the other participant; something interesting and relevant, and it will provide reaction for the writer. Byrne (1988) also underlines that in the development of writing reading will play an extremely important part.

Hillocks' (1986) survey of L1 writing research provides support for process/product compromise in task-based instruction. Hillocks found that there is no relationship

between the duration of instruction and the quality of writing. He identified four modes of instruction: the presentational (teacher-centred, students are passive recipients of rules and models), the natural process (there is no presentation of criteria or models, students write for their peers and give peer feedback), the environmental (teacher plans specific, structured, problem-solving activities with high student interaction and clear objectives, peer revision and explicit criteria for evaluation) and the individualised (students receive instruction through tutorials) modes. Hillocks found the presentational mode the least effective, third effective was the individualised mode, second best was the natural process mode, and the environmental mode yielded higher gains than the other three modes. Hillocks also analysed the effectiveness of the focus of instruction, the types of writing activities. He found that grammar instruction had no effect on raising the quality of student writing. Free writing was more effective, but the most effective focuses of instruction were: inquiry, the use of scales, sentence combining and models. The author concludes that peer editing and the revision of drafts are useful when explicit criteria for evaluation are considered. Clearly defined writing tasks with specific objectives result in the most significant gains in student writing: note-taking, response journals, summary, paraphrase, analysis, comparison and evaluation of data. Spacks (1988) also suggests that a process-centred course with text or data-based tasks facilitates writing and at the same time written language acts as a medium for learning something else.

Tribble (1996) also claims that writing instruction needs to combine the achievements of both process- and product-oriented instruction as writers "need to know content knowledge, context knowledge, language system knowledge, writing process knowledge" (p.43). He argues that the genre/process debate is based on false dichotomies and ideological preoccupations: "Ultimately, the central issues of freedom and control are not alternatives between which a choice has to be made. They are really interdependent, and effective writing pedagogy will call upon both approaches" (p.61).

4.8 How to motivate students to write

Motivating students to write is an important condition of success in the learning process. As has been shown, advocates of task-based writing instruction (Long, 1992;

Hillocks, 1986; Spacks, 1988; Dyer, 1996) claim that motivation is achieved through specific tasks where students learn something about the world, and language acts as a medium not as an aim in the process. In the following section a selection of other methods that have proved to be motivating for students in writing instruction will be demonstrated.

Rinvolucri (1983) offers a method that has proved to be highly motivating for learners. He started writing letters to his students in 1981, and found that the motivating effect was stronger than with other writing development methods he had used before. He soon realised that students without any direct correction started using his letters as linguistic models for their replies. In another article (1995), 14 years later, he sums up the experiences of a long period of using the method. He argues that humanistic methods enhance students' writing skills. For years he has been writing individual letters to students in his classes. He has experienced that the benefit is huge: enriched the understanding of the people, allowed him to teach more reactively, provided record to look back on, real readership and meaningful communication. However, he has found the workload gigantic with such emotional impact that is hard to handle. The question emerged how to keep the benefits and decrease workload to a more reasonable level. The techniques he has come up with include writing to only four or five students in the group. He argues that we do not have to treat students equally as "Writing is a preferential mode of communication with some, but not all students" (p.153).

He also recommends writing 'Dear Everybody' letters, responding to individual letters by writing a single letter to everybody in the group. This technique saves time for the teacher, though students might lose the feeling of intimacy and trust by seeing their points made public.

Another method he recommends, namely students writing to students, keeps the advantages of fresh, genuine and emotionally relevant correspondence and is rather economical at the same time. Writing letters freely to each other he has found motivating and repeatable. In such activities the pairing up of students based on natural empathy and shared interests is important to facilitate motivation. It also avoids the trap of popular students getting huge piles of letters and others none. The teacher can monitor the process to provide good language models and correction.

Rinvolucri also suggests using role-play activities in writing. He claims that in the same way there are students who "benefit from wearing a role-play mask in speaking, so there are people who enormously enjoy the same kind of 'freeing' in writing"(p157). Such activities also help students prepare for examinations in which they have to write letters as people other than themselves. In one such activity the students take up assumed roles on the basis what/who they feel they would like to become at the moment: a seagull, a stone, Julius Caesar, etc. In pairs students can discuss the details of each other's new personality. In bigger groups the pairs introduce each other to the group. Then students write a letter to one of the characters in the group. Rinvolucri has found that the most motivational effect had the version when real people (the students in their own role) wrote to the characters. The task became too complicated and hard to handle when characters wrote to characters.

Another motivating student-to-student writing task is the 'wholes write to parts', in which one part of the class assumes, for example, the role of trees and the other the role of leaves. Then the trees write to their leaves and vice versa. Rinvolucri claims that "if the class is in the right mood, magic texts can be produced" (p.158). Other, differently related segments of the outside world can also write to each other. The most important advantage of the method is that personal letter writing is an invaluable source of learning in a friendly atmosphere triggered by genuine interest.

Swan (1985b) also recommends using personalisation for raising students' motivation. He claims that "Each individual in a class already possesses a vast private store of knowledge, opinions, and experience; and each individual has an imagination which is capable of creating whole scenarios at a moment's notice [...] In many contemporary language courses, communication of this 'personal' kind seems to be seriously under-exploited" (p.84).

Soh Bee-Lay and Soon Yee-Ping (1991) found that a telecommunication project involving EFL/ESL students in Singapore and Quebec proved highly motivating in that they made personal contact with students from a different culture and gave them a sense of pride and achievement. The students were encouraged to exchange ideas and opinions on a variety of topics via e-mail. In an expansion of the project into cross-

cultural work on literature the students produced an impressive range of written work. In the authors' opinion success was due to the presence of real audience, natural curiosity about distant places and people, students' own selection of personal, local and international topics they wrote about. The authors have found that "For both students and teachers, this innovative approach to learning and to literature differed from conventional classroom-based instruction, in that the work evolved directly from the students' own experiences and reactions, and took them beyond the confines of their own schools and national boundaries" (p.292).

Using the Internet to engage students in real-life writing activities and find sources for their writing assignments has become increasingly important in recent years. In his paper Stapleton (2005) argues that introducing Internet literacy and practising Web sourcing should become a part of writing programmes. As most web pages, unlike books and journals, do not go through a screening process, students should be trained to treat web-based sources more critically and recognise partiality and weak reasoning in them.

Vincent (1990) reports ways of motivating her advanced learners to improve their writing skills. Working with Polish students studying towards an MA in English in Warsaw she found that future translators, teachers and interpreters by the fourth year of their studies demonstrated discontent and disillusionment. The teaching situation was a formal classroom situation, and the approach was to tell students what they need instead of learning through exploration, analysis and discussion. The students were satisfied with their writing skills, they felt they did not need better skills for the job market. Further discussion revealed that in reality students felt insecure about their skills because of the lack of authentic written communication, and they felt they lacked the ability to correct their mistakes in style and register. Joint discussion revealed a need for real-life communication, so they decided to contact a foreign business in Warsaw. They wrote a letter requesting a visit at a big international company with the help of the author. Content, organisation, lexis, paragraph building, layout were discussed. Then the students in pairs wrote up the letters, which were read out, discussed and a final version was negotiated. The company replied, the visit was arranged. Further writing tasks were suggested on the basis of the visit: a summary of the introductory talk, a summary of a presented video, a report on the question session, and a timetable of

events. The company offered to publish the materials in their magazine. All the written work was done in groups, the students showed such enthusiasm during the whole process that was alien to them before. The teacher's role was facilitating and monitoring. The experiment shows the value of having a real audience, and a topic and context that are highly relevant to the learners. The writing of the articles for an English magazine gave students a real purpose for their efforts, and they experienced the usefulness and power of their newly learnt skills. The author encourages teachers to look beyond their immediate resources and find out about the real needs and interests of their students.

Chenoweth (1987) also finds it important to find topics that motivate students as "if they are not interested or have no knowledge of the topic, they will put only minimal effort in their work" (p28).

Kress (1994) expresses an interesting view of the difficulty of motivation in the writing instruction. He claims that if we teach towards real-life writing needs, the fixed, formalised and codified genres involve an increasing loss of creativity, and the learner's creativity will be subordinated to the demands of the genre. In the learning process the child learns to control the genre, which in the end means that the genre will control the child: "No single individual is likely to create a new genre, where then exists the possibility for creativity (p.125)?" Kress's argument is a strong one, however, it should not be forgotten that in the content that fills the frame of that particular genre there is ample room for relying on students' creativity. Naturally, certain forms, e.g. informal letters or stories offer bigger possibilities than business letters or minutes of meetings.

Tribble (1996) also finds that motivation is a basic factor in teaching the written language. He claims that the motivation and needs of learning should be considered as there are "many types of writing and many reasons for learning to write (p.5.)". He suggests that the texts should be representative of the particular forms in which the learners are interested in and should be used as models for analysis and discussion but they should not be slavishly imitated.

Cotterall and Cohen (2003) offer a 'scaffolded approach' to assist learners to participate in meaningful and motivating activities in a supportive atmosphere. The scaffolding in

their writing programme involves extensive group and one-to-one talk about writing. It also incorporates the following features: topics linked to relevant study schemes; a pre-determined essay structure; assistance with finding texts and data; staged instruction; focusing on one aspect of the essay writing each week; using extensive modelling and focus on language and regular feedback from peers and tutors. The authors imply that the success of the programme is due to the complex planning and consistent application of the above principles. The students appreciate the opportunity to talk about learning and writing, the 'real-world' tasks, the continuous support during the course, the consistent work on language, and the experience of collective inquiry.

4.9 Creating a low anxiety level

As it has been stated second language acquisition theories put high emphasis on the 'low affective filter' (Krashen, 1987). In this section some opinions and ways of lowering the student's anxiety level will be demonstrated. At the same time it is assumed that the previously discussed communicative features of writing tasks (working in groups on meaningful and motivating tasks) have a strong anxiety-lowering effect.

Randsell (1993) claims that experiences gained from the process of starting learning a new foreign language were a real eye-opener and made her realise and relive the beginning phase of language learning as full of insecurity. Starting to learn a new language strengthened her views that anxiety and frustration should be lowered. One possible method she learned from her instructor of Greek was the use of a creative writing task at elementary level. The instruction was to write up a story using the structures and words at their disposal. The students' vocabulary was very limited, about 70 words. The completion of the task gave the author a sense of power over the language and the first feeling of success at the same time. What brought about the change? Analysing the learning experience the writer has come to the following conclusions:

- the student was not put on the spot as in speaking, there was no need to take immediate decisions
- the writing task provided concrete evidence of learning for her

- the student owned the language, that is made use of the language that suited her purposes
- as she created her own story, she became enthusiastically involved
- the task boosted her self-confidence as creative writing allowed her to control the new language

The author concludes that she was not in full possession of language items until she tested them in meaningful use for her own purposes. The 'slow creation' without the time pressure of oral utterances in class also highly facilitated achieving success without stress.

Silva *et al.*, (1994) examining their writing instruction for ESL graduate students, found that students became more confident and relaxed about the course when they realised how much individual attention they would receive in conferences, and how many revision opportunities they would have before they handed in their final drafts. These findings also support the view that setting up a transparent course with predictable steps and procedures and paying individual attention to students lower the anxiety level and highly enhance the effectiveness of writing instruction.

Lonon Blanton (1987) in her research on undergraduate students in ESL writing classes has found that her students bring a heavy load of anxiety to class, which reduces their effectiveness in becoming more proficient writers. She experimented in the classroom until she designed a course with a combination of activities which involves the teacher in different roles, and which serves different functions. The author claims that the resulting programme works well in changing students' perceptions about writing, lowering their anxiety, and increasing their writing proficiency. The activities are concurrent during the semester: journal writing on each occasion, logs writing once a week, and essay writing-related activities on each occasion. Each class starts with a five-minute journal writing, which is a quiet, peaceful activity. Neither the teacher nor the peers see the entries, everybody writes for himself. The aim is getting into the mood, having a few minutes of meditation, unwinding and reflecting. The teacher, as a fellow writer, does the same. The author claims that during such free writing an organic connection is created between language, thought and feeling, which enhances the

development of fluency. She has also found that "when writing is part of our everyday routine, the less awesome and anguished an act it becomes" (p114).

4.10 Giving feedback on students' writing

Giving meaningful and comprehensible feedback on students' written products is a dreaded task for teachers, who feel responsible for their students' development because of the high workload it involves.

Keh (1990) describes three types of feedback that worked in her practice: peer feedback, conferencing and written comments. She claims that the process approach with continuous feedback and several rewriting cycles gives the best result in writing instruction. At the same time she claims that the teacher should focus on the product as well in terms of teaching forms that are necessary for the student's further studies or professional activities. She claims that the purpose of feedback is to make it clear for the learner where she has misled or confused the reader, where and how she has organised her thoughts in an illogical way, has not developed necessary ideas or chose incorrect language to convey meaning. The author lists the advantages of peer feedback as follows: saves time for the teacher, creates a greater sense of audience with readers other than the teacher. As learners have the tendency to read for surface, the author claims that they have to be taught to give feedback on 'high order' problems (Krest, 1988) such as the development of ideas, organisation, and the overall focus of what they are writing about. For the peer feedback sessions the author uses guidelines.

Peer feedback is not considered to be beneficial by all researchers. Silva *et al.*, (1994) examining their writing instruction for ESL graduate students found that a lot of students reacted negatively to peer evaluation. They did not find peer interaction very useful especially when linguistic issues were addressed.

Rollinson (2005) expresses similar views, noting that a lot of teachers and students question the potential value of peer feedback. They feel that only a better writer, or a native speaker is qualified to judge or comment on their written work. In several observed cases the participants' lack of trust in the accuracy and sincerity of the comments of their peers made peer feedback less helpful than the teacher's **feedback.**

Despite the dangers and difficulties the author, however, finds that peer feedback has a valuable impact on the writing process if applied appropriately. He argues that the problems can be alleviated by proper pre-training, awareness raising, properly setting up the group and establishing effective procedures. He claims that the major outcome of the procedure is that by giving the students practice in becoming critical readers, we are helping them to become more self-reliant writers.

Keh (1990) lists the advantages of conferences as follows: allow more and more accurate feedback compared to written comments, the teacher is a live audience able to ask for clarification, check comprehensibility, help sort out problems, assist in decision-making. Before conference sessions students are given focus questions to make the process more efficient e.g. What is the main point of your essay? Who are you writing to? What do you wish to achieve? What specific area do you want the teacher to respond to? The author finds the non-directive conference approach especially useful as it helps build students' self-esteem and lower anxiety. The approach is based on counselling techniques in which the teacher asks for more information and clarification, shows appreciation and acceptance. The author has found that conferences fail when the teacher assumes an authoritarian role. Tribble (1996) has also found that for feedback giving and further development individual sessions with students are highly beneficial. Silva, Reichelt and Lax-Farr (1994) have found that according to the feedback on their writing course students especially valued the conference time with the teacher.

Keh agrees with most teachers that making comments on students' writing is frustrating and very time consuming. To make the technique beneficial for the student and efficient and economical at the same time she suggests the following:

- the teacher should communicate in a human voice with sincere interest in the learner's improvement and respect for his ideas
- comments should be limited to fundamental problems ('high order concerns') as a lot of 'low order' concerns may disappear in a later draft as the learner changes the content; in later drafts 'low order concerns' should be addressed too
- giving summative comments at the end of the paper on overall strengths and weaknesses has proved to be useful with offering praise first followed by problem areas.

Shin (2003) also emphasises the beneficial effects of one-on-one conferences, as they allow students to control the interaction, clarify the teacher's responses and negotiate meaning. She claims that each session should start with 'high-order' issues: comments on content and organisation.

Chenoweth (1987) expresses similar views to Keh (1990), Perl (1980) and Zamel (1983) in that feedback to the learner should not mainly address grammar, spelling and punctuation problems. She also underlines the finding that unskilled writers tend to correct surface errors of grammar, punctuation or word choice, and assume that what they have written makes sense. What they do not realise is that they need to add more explanation and detail or rearrange ideas, in other words to assess their work from the reader's point of view. Chenoweth also claims that teachers can organise work with classes so that students are given the opportunity to rewrite drafts in ways that will improve the content. The author suggests teacher's comments as feedback with focus on the most important areas. She also claims that individual work in class with one student while the others are doing something else might also be helpful. She has found that in the writing-rewriting process teachers should remember to be patient and continue to encourage their students.

Giving feedback is particularly difficult in large classes. Boughey (1997) claims that giving feedback to individual students in classes of 30 is an onerous task, and developing students' capacity to work as peer reviewers is not always easy. In her experiment students worked in groups to produce multiple drafts of a joint assignment. The groups were homogenous to avoid groups being dominated by strong performers. In each group the chairperson co-ordinated discussions and writing, the gatekeeper checked that the group did not deviate from the aims set, the timekeeper checked that the group kept to time limits, the secretary acted as scribe for the group, and there were participants without extra tasks. The roles were rotating except the role of the chairperson, which was meant to provide the element of consistency. This way the number of groups defined the number of sets of feedback. The author sees the benefits of group writing and feedback as follows:

- feedback given to the entire group is perceived as constructive suggestion rather than as criticism

- more detailed feedback was possible on grammar, lexis, coherence, cohesion, sense of audience
- students considered several different points of view and learned to co-operate
- hearing other people's opinions students were less afraid to express their own, their self confidence got boosted
- the group writing experience provided more practice in manipulating data than would otherwise have been possible

Chimombo (1986) offers ways to avoid the traditional method of correcting each and every mistake in student writing. She describes experiments with evaluating pupils' work in the course of a longitudinal research project with large classes of 40-50 pupils. Her aim was to find economical ways of giving feedback to students at sentence-, paragraph- and composition levels. She suggests the following techniques:

- typing up sentences taken from students' writing on separate sheets, giving each to a group of pupils who work on correction, then group discussion follows with joint correction.
- carrying out the same procedure with a full paragraph
- working with one full composition in groups
- giving pupils a short dictation of a corrected paragraph
- giving the students an opportunity to rewrite a composition without actually realising that they are doing so by asking them to rewrite their story in a slightly modified way

The author of the article finds that such procedures leave a more memorable impression on the pupils than the teacher's individual correction and feedback on the individual compositions. The last but one technique provides reinforcement of a successful piece of writing and practices punctuation as well. The last technique also reinforces the successful version of the already clarified problem areas as it asks for little change compared to the previous version. At the same time the requested change may motivate the student. The author highlights the importance of raising the pupils' awareness of acknowledging the process of rewriting. Without rewriting a piece over and over again it is not possible to reach the complex goal of clarity in terms of content, purpose, audience and language. Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim that in joint discussions the

teacher must pay attention to such elements of cohesion as conjunction, lexical cohesion, ellipsis, substitution and reference.

Lonon Blanton (1987) uses learning logs to reshape the students' perception of how to start improving their writing. In order to show the type of feedback she gives to students it is necessary to describe the framework of her course as well. Her students are asked to bring their learning logs to class once a week for the teacher to read. The task provides a situation for them to write to a specific reader. The teacher's role is the reader's role only and she sees only content: "I have to remind myself that students are writing their logs to communicate to me and that I will violate their trust if I try to slip in a correction" (p.115). The teacher gives individual feedback responding to the content only. She also gives feedback in the teacher's weekly log. In it she shares with the students how she thinks the class is going and the areas they need to work on. She also selects a couple of individual observations from students' logs paraphrased in reshaped language and reorganised structure. The author finds that in later work students tend to use the teacher's language extracts. The real audience, the genuine interest of the teacher, and the unthreatening atmosphere result in more focused writing. The students show motivation to write to a real reader and experience satisfaction and success in the process. This technique seems excellent for improving organised and coherent writing: "It dawns on them individually that, I, the reader, cannot read their minds, and that they have to explain fully and thoroughly what they mean..." (p116). This way they are able to produce mature writing that provides a context and content that the reader might not be aware of.

The author's next module for developing her students' writing is the weekly composition. Students appreciate the one traditional task in the course. On the topic of the week they read essays from reading textbooks, discuss it from different aspects, share personal experiences. They also analyse essays for rhetorical choices the writers use. For the next class they bring their essays, which they read out aloud to a partner. This technique, advocated by Raimes (1983), provides the writer with real feedback from an audience on unclear meaning and ungrammatical constructions. The pair then read, discuss and edit their drafts. Redrafting and handing in the draft to the teacher is the next task. The teacher here gives feedback on clarity and appropriateness of the content. After another redrafting cycle she comments on language as well, though she

has also found that a lot of grammatical and rhetorical problems have worked out during the process. After giving back the final drafts there is remedial work in class on notorious grammar problems. Student feedback reveals that they like the collaborative generation of ideas, and appreciate individual attention. An important point is that students tolerate the journal writing and log writing modules more because they know that the form and shape of their writing, editing and correcting will get attention during the essay-writing cycle. Lonon Blanton's experience shows that our own perceptions on writing development should be introduced carefully and combined with students' preferred ways of learning.

4.11 Awareness-raising activities

Hillocks (1986) claims that working with criteria sets helps students to understand that judgement of good writing is not arbitrary or mysterious teacher behaviour, but something they can achieve as well. The teacher leads a discussion on a sample of student writing, helping the students to apply a set of criteria. Then they are asked to rank essays accordingly. The technique helps raise students' awareness what good writing involves.

Hillocks also uses 'peer editing' sheets with criteria (e.g. Is there a central idea? Where is it? Are there reasons to support the idea?) Students exchange their drafts and get feedback from several students in 45 minutes. Hillocks' 'Inquiry' technique develops strategies for dealing with sets of data. Data are provided or collected by students on some controversial situation. Groups of students take up different roles and develop an argument to present at a simulated public hearing. The result can be a writing assignment of a persuasive paper.

McDevitt (1989) offers a series of activities that help remedy the problems often found in students' writing: the inaccurate use of linking devices and the failure to handle sub- and co-ordination. One is working with a student-written paragraph that contains the above problems. Students are asked to divide the paragraph according to the number of ideas, ignoring the demands of grammar. Then, within each group, they must decide which should be the basic sentence and which should be the dependent clauses. The rewritten paragraph will need further work on cohesion. The experience of the author of

the present paper suggests that it is useful first to use this as a whole-class activity showing the changes on board or OHT so that all students could follow and negotiate the teacher's and each other's suggestions.

Tomlinson (1983) suggests an approach which from the very early stages is aimed at increasing the learner's exposure to authentic writing, and at getting learners to write effectively. Before the course the following points should be considered: the types of written discourse the learners will be required to participate in outside the English lesson, the functions the learners will need to perform (e.g. informing, reporting, narrating, etc.), language structures and lexical items that are needed, aspects of register, the conventions of written English relevant to the needs of the learners, the ways of achieving cohesion in writing (e.g. pronouns for references, connectors), the ways of achieving coherence (e.g. conventional strategies of narrating, instructing, reporting, etc.). In the modelling stage the teacher presents a genuine written text which illustrates a particular aspect of written English. The text also needs to be intrinsically interesting. The learners carry out activities that enable them to respond to the selected features of the text. In the free writing stage the learners are given a writing task designed to elicit the use of the features presented in the modelling stage (e.g. persuading a businessman to contribute towards the purchase of a school bus). The teacher draws attention to the purpose and the likely readers of the text. The students can work in groups or individually. In the analysis stage the teacher collects the texts and returns the work with certain errors concerning the learning points of the unit underlined. The learners analyse and improve the writing in groups. In the presentation stage the teacher draws the learners' attention to important structures, lexis, conventions or strategies. Remedial cards are also used.

In the controlled writing stage the learners are set easy tasks so that they can practise the learning point(s). Such tasks include: filling in blanks, selecting the most appropriate lexical items to fill in blanks, transforming structures, rearranging jumbled words to form a sentence, rearranging sentences to form a paragraph, sentence completion etc. In the guided writing stage the students practise more demanding aspects of the learning point(s). Examples of such tasks are: rearranging jumbled words and adding words of their own to form sentences, rearranging jumbled sentences and adding connectives to form a cohesive and coherent paragraph, transforming texts (making letters more or less

polite), completing a text with a given beginning, middle part or ending, following a given strategy and suggestions about the required text, chain writing etc. The author suggests that this stage should be marked by the teacher. In the following free writing stage the students do a similar task to the 2nd stage without outside help. This piece of writing is marked as well. In the last modelling stage the learners are given a genuine text similar to but much longer than in the first stage. The rationale is reinforcement and further exposure.

The theoretical basis of the procedure lies in the language acquisition theory, which stresses the importance of rich, varied and meaningful input, and frequent, motivated participation in authentic discourse. Tomlinson claims that "this combination of exposure to genuine language and opportunities to use it facilitates the essential process of generalisation, which involves the subconscious formulation and revision of hypotheses relating to the systematic functioning of the target language" (p.14). The 'model' and 'free' stages ensure the natural input and output which are necessary for the building of communicative competence. Tomlinson also recognises that writing is a conscious process even for native speakers that involve conscious learning, so he includes controlled and guided practice stages that help learners to improve their conscious knowledge of the factors that determine the effectiveness, the appropriacy and the accuracy of the produced written text. The final 'free' stage gives the learner the satisfaction of participating in authentic discourse in an improved way.

Lonon Blanton (1987) suggests an excellent way of raising teachers' awareness of students' development. As it is difficult to perceive changes week by week, she asks students to write autobiographies on the first day, and without reading them to do the same in the last class of the course. Comparing the two drafts the teacher can judge what has been achieved through the course. The most remarkable difference in her class was the evidence of an awareness of the audience, fullness of details, clarity of meaning in the second version.

Jacobs (1986) argues that quickwriting is an excellent 'idea generating' technique in teaching writing. Students concentrate on content, do not worry about form and write without stopping for a few minutes. Students need to know the basic rules: forget about mechanics, concentrate only on content; the pen should be moving all the time; do not

stop for correction; if nothing comes to mind write anything until an idea comes; if you do not know a word write it in your mother tongue. There might be a preliminary activity of thinking about the topic. No grading of such production is recommended. The teacher can set an example by writing along with the students. 'Bracketing' seems a good follow-up activity, when the teacher and learners look over and discuss quickwrites, and put brackets around good parts that can be used as first drafts. Quickwriting can be used not only as the first invention stage of writing, but later in the process as well. Students will have to realise that the composing process is not linear, rather recursive, "moving back and forth between inventing and editing" (p. 286). Some teachers worry that the technique can provoke stress. Students should be assured that it will not be graded and that the unusual, unplanned, sloppy, incorrect writing will be beneficial for them in the end. When writers try to consider content and form at the same time, the process is slow, painful and the best ideas disappear in the laborious, painstaking effort (Bruce *et al.,* 1982). Other advantages are generating quantity, warming up to writing, thinking in the target language, understanding the need to edit, developing the ability to write under time pressure. The major purpose is to generate ideas and make students aware of the writing process. Macrorie (1976) claims that quickwriting enables writers to use the unconscious part of the mind to generate ideas. Naturally, quickwriting does not replace other necessary sources for ideas, such as discussion, reading etc. It might become a part of students' repertoire of invention strategies. Teachers should be careful not to force students to quickwrite as the method might not work with all learner types.

4.12 Conclusion

It can be concluded that pre-and in-service methodology courses in teaching writing for teachers of English should be based on the most important findings in the theories and applied methodologies of teaching writing presented in the relevant literature of the present chapter. The most important ideas to be taken into consideration are the following: teaching writing in the second and foreign language learning is similar to first language acquisition and operates according to the 'creative construction' model; conscious learning enhances the process of acquisition; in teaching writing formal teaching has crucial importance; the basic approach to teaching writing, similarly to the teaching of other skills, is the communicative approach; the importance of personal

involvement and student-centred learning should be acknowledged; wide exposure to appropriate models of written language, awareness raising, skills integration, a variety of techniques and practice forms are needed; students should be exposed to appropriate samples of language and given relevant and motivating activities to help them to learn; conscious and systematic vocabulary and written discourse development should accompany the teaching of writing; enhancing motivation and providing low anxiety level are essential; the syllabus has to incorporate features of procedural and task-based syllabuses.

5. Empirical research on teaching English as a foreign language in Hungary

The previous chapters of the thesis have dwelt on the historical background of foreign language teaching in Hungary, on educational policy and attempts at change management, discussed the professional aspects of the new Matura examination reform, and explored the theories, approaches and methods applied linguists offer in the field of teaching writing in a foreign language. The task of the present research is also to look for tangible evidence regarding the present state of English language teaching in general and teaching writing in particular in the Hungarian schools. A key resource for this is a two-year research project which was carried out by 17 Hungarian secondary-school teachers and teacher trainers in 1997-98. The National Institute of Public Education (OKI), a professional research institute of the Ministry of Education, with the financial help of the British Council, commissioned a team of professionals to explore the present state of foreign language teaching and to design the detailed requirements of the new school-leaving examination as part of the Curriculum and Examination Reform. As a first step the team decided to provide a realistic picture of foreign language education in Hungary by analysing data and documents and conducting their own research into the present state of teaching English as a foreign language. The aim of this work was to summarise the background data, analyse the language teaching situation and prepare recommendations for the examination reform. The resulting document, English Language Education in Hungary, a Baseline Study, (eds. Fekete, H., Major E., Nikolov, M.) was published by The British Council in 1999. Another aim of writing the Baseline Study was to provide a starting point against which the results and outcomes of the Reform could be compared later. The author of this thesis was also a research team member and one of the authors of the resulting Baseline Study. During the two years of collecting and analysing data, conducting new research and writing up the results in the Baseline Study, the team members also received training in the theory and practice of designing, marking and piloting tests. They set up the detailed requirements and exam specifications for the future examination.

The Baseline Study included eight studies dealing with

- the social and educational context of the Examination Reform
- the traditional school-leaving examination students take at the end of the 12th year of their studies
- entrance examinations in foreign languages to colleges and universities
- the public foreign language examinations available in Hungary
- Hungarian students' performances on proficiency tests
- the stakeholders' attitude to foreign language examinations
- testing in pre-and in-service teacher education programmes
- teachers' classroom practices.

Findings in chapters on the present school-leaving and entrance examinations, on secondary school students' performances on proficiency tests in English, on stakeholders' attitudes, and on teachers' classroom practices have direct bearing on the topic of the present research, and will be summarised in this chapter.

Different research tools were used for the different research areas:

- published and unpublished documents, (such as laws, the National Core Curriculum, research studies, statistical data, ministry documents)
- semi-structured interviews with decision-makers, stakeholders, educational experts and teachers
- observation and questionnaires in fields where information was limited or unavailable.

5.1 The Classroom Observation Project

The Classroom Observation Project (Nikolov, 1999a) intended to gain insight into average and disadvantaged secondary schools, pedagogical processes and task types teachers use in the last three years of secondary education (years 10, 11 and 12) in order to make sure that the tasks and levels are realistically set for the new examination. Therefore classrooms were investigated in non-prestigious schools in mostly disadvantaged geographic areas. Data from 118 classes in 55 secondary schools were collected and analysed. One third of the classes were in non-specialised grammar schools and two thirds in vocational schools. Three quarters of the schools are situated

in big towns, and about a quarter in smaller towns. The data collection method was classroom observation. Structured interviews were conducted with the teachers after the observed classes, and the teachers provided self-report by filling in the same checklist as the observers during the class. The observation instruments (observation sheets, checklists of task types and techniques, interview questions) were designed by the Baseline Study Team. The data collection was carried out by nine teachers.

The picture gained through the research is rather discouraging. As better performing schools did not appear in the investigation, the sample cannot be considered truly representative of the population. Still the results should be seriously considered when designing the new examination as they reflect the present state of English language education in average schools.

The most frequently used course materials were British publications; Headway (Soars and Soars, 1991), Hotline (Hutchinson, 1993), Blueprint (Abbs and Freebairn, 1995), Grapevine (Viney and Viney, 1991) and Access to English (Coles and Lord, 1974) were the top winners. As the present school-leaving examination is of low prestige, and at present the final aim of most language learners is to pass the state language exam, the vast majority of teachers supplement the coursebook with additional exam preparation materials that are mostly Hungarian publications. The intermediate and advanced examinations involve certain task types that do not appear in the coursebooks or the coursebook does not provide enough preparation for them (translation from English into Hungarian and from Hungarian into English, grammar and vocabulary multiple choice tests, standard conversational topics). Such practice is a typical example of the examination washback effect, when the examination task types greatly influence the content and form of teaching.

As for classroom management forms, frontal, group, pair and individual work were observed, though the rate of frontal work on average was 2.5 times as much as the time devoted to group- and pair-work activities together. In general, most of the classes were teacher-fronted, though group- and pairwork have gained some ground in teachers' practices.

As for teachers' use of the first and the target language, about 70% of teachers' speech was English. Considering that teachers are almost the exclusive source of the target language for students, this high (30%) rate of mother-tongue use seems to be against the students' interest. Observers noted that teachers used Hungarian for two reasons: to explain grammar and vocabulary, and to translate their own explanations and instructions into Hungarian.

Most observed tasks were aimed at developing grammar and speaking skills, and least frequently the observers found tasks developing writing and listening skills. (The ranking order starting from the area getting the most emphasis is: speaking, grammar, reading, translation, integrated skills, vocabulary, writing, listening.)

On average two oral tasks were used in one class, which shows that students did not get much chance to talk. This, and the fact that a lot of Hungarian is used, indicates that limited oral practice is going on. The most frequent oral tasks were answering questions, discussion prompted by a picture or pictures and role-play.

As the major field of enquiry for the present thesis is the improvement of writing skills the research findings relating to teaching writing skills will be dealt with in more detail.

Frequency of writing tasks

	observed	claimed
Copying	24	0.50
Gap filling (different cloze types, C-test)	15	1.39
Translating texts from English into Hungarian	15	1.66
Arranging words into sentences	14	1.47
Translating texts from Hungarian into English	13	1.34
Describing pictures, people and events	12	1.47
Matching and arranging language elements	12	1.32
Writing short notes, memos, diary entries	8	0.81
Using given elements (e.g. pictures, words)	8	1.08
Dictation	6	0.79
Creating short texts with the help of given but incomplete lists	6	0.95
Data filling: completing forms, questionnaires	6	1.28
Writing stories with a given ending or beginning	3	0.55
Arranging sentences into paragraphs	3	0.95
Writing texts with the help of guiding points	2	1.07
Writing formal and informal letters, invitations	1	1.13
Writing instructions, directions	1	0.72
Writing stories with the help of pictures	1	1.00
Arranging paragraphs into passages	1	0.82
Summarising English text in Hungarian	1	0.98
Writing postcards, greeting cards	0	1.08

(Data taken from the Baseline Study)

As for the quantity of the observed writing task types one or two were applied on average in one class. The table illustrates the frequency of each writing task type. In the table task types are rank ordered according to the frequency of use; the figures indicate how many times the task was observed in 118 classes. The numbers in the 'claimed' column show teachers' self-report results. In the 'claimed' column the figures indicate the following: If the teacher never uses the task type, it got 0; sometimes 1, and often 2 scores; then averages were calculated.

The observation results show that copying was the most frequently used task type, and translation and gap filling also figured high on the list. The other most frequently used tasks were substitution drills and other sentence-level tasks. Tasks that involved work with the language at text-level were rarely observed. Out of 118 classes they were observed in the following numbers:

writing short memos	8
notes	8
diary entries	8
creating short texts with the help of given but incomplete lists	6
data filling, completing forms, questionnaires	6
writing texts with a given beginning or ending	3
arranging sentences into paragraphs	3
writing texts with some kind of guidance	2
writing formal or informal letters, invitations	1
writing instructions, directions	1
writing texts with the help of pictures	1
arranging paragraphs into passages	1
postcard or greeting card writing	0

According to the teachers' self-report scores postcard and greeting card writing, writing texts with the help of pictures, writing formal and informal letters, invitations, writing texts with guidance, completing forms, questionnaires were used more frequently than the observed occasions indicate. This might reflect teachers' real practice, though it might also reveal the fact that they try to make a better impression of their practice than it is in reality.

In sum, the writing tasks most frequently observed and claimed to be used are language-focused sentence-level ones and translation. They reflect the grammar-translation and audio-lingual traditions and are typical testing techniques in school-leaving and proficiency exams. Writing tasks, similarly to the other productive skill, speaking, in most cases remained on the one-word or sentence level.

Listening comprehension tasks were used in only every seventh task on average. Observers also noted that teachers did not exploit classroom language for management as a way of improving students' listening comprehension. In sum, listening seemed to be the most neglected skill in the observed groups.

Among the reading comprehension tasks reading aloud was the most frequent task type. It was often combined with translation to check comprehension. The list below shows the frequency of reading tasks observed in 118 classes:

reading aloud	64
matching pictures to text	21
arranging events or stages in a process in order	7
matching phrases or sentences to gaps in a text	7
multiple matching	6
sequencing sentences or paragraphs to form a text	4
multiple-choice	3
matching headings, headlines to different texts	1
matching opinions to people identified in a text	1

The text types used (in that frequency order and number) were:

fables, simple stories	19
parts of books	17
notices, captions	14
picture descriptions	14
newspaper articles	11
monologues	11
interviews, reports, TV or radio programmes	10
dictionary entries	9
graphs, diagrams, charts, tables	8
menu cards	6
instructions, directions	6
personal notes	5
formal and informal letters	5
advertisements	4
schedules, time-tables	2
announcements	1
postcards	1
telephone-related text	1
forms	0

Most texts came from the coursebook.

The observers described the classrooms as unfriendly. Facilities were not properly exploited, equipment was underused, there were no decorations, and in most classes students were seated in traditional rows. Observers found most teachers overworked, underpaid and disillusioned. Most observed teachers were not aware of how classroom activities and teachers as models could contribute to the development of students' motivation and blamed mostly the students for failures.

Based on the findings the study puts forward among others the following recommendations which relate highly to teachers' future training needs:

- in-service courses should aim to improve teachers' language proficiency, methodology and awareness towards second and foreign language acquisition
- teachers should be involved in the Examination Reform (the finding that they are interested is a good sign); public relations activities will be crucial
- the minimum number of hours per week devoted to languages should be increased;
- Hungarian publishers should come up with course materials integrating teaching courses with exam preparation
- as levels in some of these schools are very low measures will have to be taken to provide support in order that these children could pass the new examinations
- teachers need help in motivating students towards language learning
- teachers and students should exploit sources for learning outside the classroom
- secondary-schools should provide the continuity of primary school language studies for students in their first year
- teachers should be made aware of how classroom management forms contribute to students' learning

5.2 The Sampling of Students' Performances Project

The findings of the Classroom Observation Project correlate well with the Sampling of Students' Performances study (Ábrahám *et al.*, 1999). The research was conducted with the aim to help future level setting of the Examination Reform Project. No previous sampling had been done in Hungary with regard to 11th and 12th graders' language proficiency. The project tested the language skills of a population of 246 secondary-school students. For reasons to be mentioned below the population sample cannot be considered representative, however yielded a lot of information concerning secondary-school students' present language proficiency.

The International Certificate Conference Examination (ICC) mock exam was administered to 246 students, out of whom 204 were taking the written component and 42 were also taking both the written and the oral parts. The ICC examination was chosen for the following reasons:

- it is internationally recognised, and has been widely used since 1984
- it incorporates objective testing and evaluation methods and tests all the 4 skills
- it offers the same components as are to be tested in the future Matura exam
- as it was relevant to see how the average Hungarian student can cope with the requirements of the Threshold level, Stage 2 (designed to measure performances at the Threshold level, which is planned to be the level of the lower-level school-leaving examination) was used
- the ICC testing centre offered to process all the papers and do the statistical analyses.

Considering the resources available, the team did not aim at a nationwide survey. The sample was planned to include students from all school types, from different regions of Hungary, boys and girls represented equally. Through the existing professional network teachers in Budapest and provincial towns were asked to send students with good, satisfactory and weak marks. As the participation was voluntary, most of the participants represented the best student group (72.5%) with the two highest end-of-year marks in English. It seems that weaker students were not motivated enough to check their language proficiency. 144 students came from Budapest, 102 from the country.

The tables below show the representation of different school-types and years in the survey.

The breakdown of students by type of school:

Type of school	**% of students**
secondary grammar school	51.25
secondary vocational school	21.25
combined secondary grammar and vocational school	18.03
secondary vocational and trade school	9.16

The breakdown of students by year:

Year	% of students
9	.416
11	25.00
12	74.584

The team expected to find poorer performance in the productive skills than in the receptive skills due to the higher difficulty level of the former skills and also due to the lack of the proper teaching of writing skills in Hungarian schools. Another reason for expecting lower results was the fact that writing is not tested in the present exam.

The overall results of the mock exam are rather disappointing. Almost 40% of the students were below 60%, (the Threshold level).

The ICC test component results:

Component	% of maximum points
Reading comprehension	79.65
Writing	43.82
Listening comprehension	71.04
Vocabulary and structures	70.30
Speaking	64.79

As the table shows the students' achievement was the weakest in the writing task (a guided composition) at 43.8%, followed by speaking at 64.8%. The fact that they were not familiar with the guided oral test and the lack of the proper teaching of writing skills in Hungarian schools both in the mother tongue and in the foreign language may also have contributed to these results. Listening comprehension, which is a much neglected area (see Classroom Observation Project), did comparatively well: 71.04%. This seemingly surprising result needs further investigation. One of the reasons might be that at the ICC mock exam the volunteering students with good school marks were more likely to perform better in certain skills than the practices of the unprivileged schools observed would suggest.

The findings also reveal that the best student performance came from the two big cities, Budapest and Győr. As regards school types, grammar-school students and students from the combined grammar-school and vocational school performed best. Also, third-formers (year 11) performed considerably better (70.74) than fourth-formers (year 12) (59.2). The reason most probably is the fact that the best students in the 12th year did not volunteer to participate as they had taken the state language exam in their third year (11th form), and were exempted from further language studies. As was mentioned before, this practice is one of the most controversial issues for secondary-school language teachers, who consider it a waste of resources and lost opportunities for these students. Students with better school grades did much better than students with lower grades. The students' weakest areas were writing and speaking, in spite of the fact that listening comprehension development is the skill the least time is devoted to.

The research findings cannot be considered representative and caution must be taken in generalising the findings to the whole population of school-leavers; still the results indicate certain tendencies that are worth taking into consideration in the designing of the new examination.

Based on the results of the research the team put forward some important recommendations that bear relevance not only to the examination development but further teacher training as well:

- If Hungary in the future intends to offer equal opportunities for all Hungarian students, the quality of secondary-school language education must be considerably improved. Apart from controlling input, students' performance should also be controlled at the other end, by introducing modern, valid and reliable school-leaving examinations. As good foreign language proficiency entails the appropriate mastery of all the four skills, the new exam must measure all of them in line with the latest advances in language proficiency testing. Instead of discrete-point, objective tests a more integrative and global, communicative and task-based approach should be employed when developing the new set of school-leaving examinations.
- Special emphasis should be placed on the improvement of the skills development methods of teachers, especially in the productive skills, which require much more practice and confidence on behalf of the teachers.

- The system of pre-service and in-service teacher training has to be harmonised and improved; teachers' awareness of basic principles of testing and evaluation should be raised.

5.3 The Stakeholders' Attitudes Project

The Stakeholders' Attitude study (Bárány *et al.*, 1998) aimed to identify key stakeholders' attitude to the Examination Reform. Questionnaires were designed for language teachers, headmasters, parents, secondary-school leavers and university students representing all school types all over the country. Results of the questionnaires sent back by 91 teachers, 22 headmasters, 410 parents, 1014 school-leavers and 76 university students were processed and analysed. 10 structured interviews were conducted with headmasters and 10 with employers who advertised vacancies in newspapers for secondary-school graduates with English language knowledge. From the point of view of secondary-school leavers' expected levels of writing skills the interviews with employers will be analysed in more detail.

The interviews aimed to identify employers' needs towards the language levels and skills of students going out to work from secondary-schools. The structured interviews were conducted with human resources staff whose firms (banks, hotels, restaurants, travel agencies) put advertisements in two newspapers to fill vacancies with English language knowledge as a condition. The results revealed that the most important skills required were oral communication, understanding of the foreign language; writing skills, taking messages, writing faxes, writing official letters, filling in forms, writing documents and reports. The interviewees' answers also revealed that the applicants' speaking skills were better than their writing skills; the biggest deficiency the applicants had in understanding spoken language and writing.

The survey of headmasters', parents', school-leavers' and university students' attitudes towards the new exam also yielded some interesting results that are relevant to the present research. All the respondents agreed that the role of language teaching in state education should be increased. If languages are taught effectively and a prestigious examination could be taken within public education, it would restore the principle of equal opportunities, which is impeded by the present system. It is thought-provoking

that when ranking the importance of different factors influencing the effectiveness of language teaching, all groups considered good teachers the most important. The majority of the respondents think that the present examination is not reliable, the same mark does not represent the same knowledge in different schools, and that the prestige of the exam is low.

The conclusions and recommendations of the study bearing relevance also to in-service teacher training are as follows:

- the new school-leaving examination should cover all the language skills, the tasks should be varied and lifelike, standards should be higher, the evaluation should be objective and the results should be comparable
- the role of public education should be increased in language teaching
- the most frequent job tasks can be identified and should be built into teaching and testing
- the development of oral communication and writing should have stronger emphasis in the foreign language classroom.

5.4 Conclusion

The Matura examination regulations, specifications and requirements have taken into consideration the above findings of the Baseline Study. In order to enable teachers to meet the demands of modern communicative language teaching and help students to reach the required standards of the new Matura examination the in-service training course designed by the author of this thesis and presented in Chapter 8 also built in its syllabus the findings and recommendations of the Baseline Study.

6. The new school-leaving examination

The present chapter will introduce the aims and objectives of the school-leaving examination development in Hungary and the specifications of the new examination. There will be strong emphasis on the writing component of the examination. The introduction of the most important features of the examination is indispensable as from May 2005 this examination will set the required level for school-leavers' foreign language competence. The examination is intended to have 'learning validity' (Tomlinson, 2005) in that apart from being valid and reliable, it also enhances involvement in life-like interactions during preparation. In other words, by including tasks that necessitate the simulation of real-life language use, it will have a strong impact (washback effect) on the content and methodology of foreign language teaching (Alderson *et al.* 1995; Weigle, 2002; Weir, 1990). Consequently, the requirements of the examination will highly influence the content and methodology of the planned training course as well.

6.1 Aims

A letter from the Minister of Education, as an introduction to the description of the new examination system, can be found on the official homepage of the Hungarian Ministry of Education. In it the Minister puts the biggest emphasis on one of the aims of the examination reform, namely, on the fact that the new system gives equal opportunities to every learner to enter tertiary education (www.om.hu, 2004). As of 2005 the higher education institutions are not allowed to organise their own entrance examinations; the new Matura examination will function as entrance examination as well. This decision ensures that successful graduation from secondary public education is enough for further studies at universities, and parents do not have to spend extra money (at least those who can afford it) on expensive preparatory courses to meet the extra requirements of the universities.

The law regulating the new Matura examination states that each secondary-school-student is required to take either the lower-level or the higher-level examination in one foreign language (Magyar Közlöny, 1997). The other subjects of the examination are

Hungarian Language and Literature (or Minority Language and Literature for minorities), mathematics, history and one optional subject.

The present version of the Detailed Requirements Document of the new English school-leaving examination is the result of a 7-year development programme initiated by the Ministry of Education. The present version of the document, written by the six team members, was published by the Ministry of Education in 2004 (Magyar Közlöny, 2004). The Document is available only in Hungarian. The parts included in the present chapter are the author's interpretations into English.

Based on the applied research results in testing communicative competence (Alderson *et al.*, 1995; Weigle, 2002; Weir, 1990) the document sets the aim for the examination to test Hungarian school-leavers' communicative language competence in English as a foreign language, in other words to measure to what extent school-leavers achieve successful communication in spoken and written English. The Document has been developed according to the general requirements of the school-leaving examination in foreign languages and the Council of Europe recommendations regarding foreign language teaching.

The author of the present thesis is one of the six-member team who have designed the examination requirements and specifications for the two levels, designed and piloted the tasks of the 2004 trial examination and the 2005 first 'real-life' examination.

6.2 Description of the English language examination

The examination tests English language competence at two levels. Students can choose between a lower-level examination (Council of Europe levels A2 and B1) and a higher-level examination (Council of Europe level B2).

Council of Europe	Matura examination
C2 Mastery	
C1 Effective Operational Proficiency	
B2 Vantage	**Higher level**
B1 Threshold	
A2 Waystage	**Lower level**
A1 Breakthrough	

The Document states that level A2 is the minimum level to pass the lower-level examination. Originally level B1 was planned to be the level of the lower-level examination, however, in 2003 a ministry decision lowered it to A2 for fear of high failure rates.

The examination consists of a written and an oral test at both levels (see sample trial written examination papers in Appendix 2). The examination tests the four language skills: reading comprehension, listening, writing and speaking. In order to use the four skills of communication it was considered essential to have a certain amount of vocabulary and be able to use correct and appropriate structures. For this reason the examination at both levels tests the candidates' grammatical and lexical knowledge as well. This way the written test at both levels contains four components: a Use of English paper, a Reading Comprehension paper, a Listening Comprehension paper and a Writing paper. The fifth component of the examination is the oral test, which measures the candidates' speaking skills.

The Document describes in detail the required subskills at both levels for each of the five components of the examination. It also sets the topics the candidate has to be able to speak or write about (e.g. family, our environment, school, employment, lifestyles, free time activities, travelling, science and technology, etc) and the communicative functions the candidate is required to be able to perform (e.g. greeting, introduction, expressing gratitude, satisfaction, sorrow, disappointment, agreement/disagreement, praise, promise, desire, certainty/uncertainty, asking for and giving information, description, assumption, etc). It also provides the list of grammatical structures that are required for each level of the examination.

The time set for the written paper of the lower-level examination is 180 minutes. The oral component lasts 15 minutes. The table below shows the components in the order of administration and the maximum points awarded for each component. The total score is 150.

		Time allotted (minutes)	**Percentage (%)**	**Points**
Written component	Reading Comprehension	60	22	33
	Use of English	30	12	18
	BREAK			
	Listening Comprehension	30	22	33
	Writing	60	22	33
Oral component	Speaking	15	22	33
	TOTAL	195	100	150

The higher-level examination tests the same skills and the examination consists of the same components. The time set for the written paper of the higher-level examination is 260 minutes. The oral component lasts 20 minutes. The table below shows the components in the order of administration and the maximum points awarded for each component. The total score, similarly to the lower-level exam is 150.

		Time allotted (minutes)	**Percentage (%)**	**Points**
Written component	Reading Comprehension	70	20	30
	Use of English	50	20	30
	BREAK			
	Listening Comprehension	30	20	30
	Writing	90	20	30
Oral component	Speaking	20	20	30
	TOTAL	260	100	150

From the above description it can be seen that in the lower-level examination the Use of English component is allocated fewer points than the other components; its weight is less in the examination. This situation reflects a compromise that was reached after long debates of the test designers. It can be argued that, according to the aims of communicative language teaching approaches, the most important aim of the examination is to test how successfully the candidate can communicate, so it is enough to test the four skills, consequently, it is not necessary to test language use and vocabulary separately. The other view acknowledges the high importance of 'getting the message through', whilst at the same time insisting that words and structures are the building blocks without which there cannot be successful communication. Consequently, it is important to test them separately. In the case of the Hungarian examination the following compromise has been reached: in the lower-level examination successful communication is more important than appropriate and correct language use. In this way, a 'light' Use of English component will be included. In the higher-level examination, however, in line with the characteristics of the B2-level language user, accurate language use and rather rich vocabulary are also expected, so that this component has the same weight as the others.

The evaluation of the examination is regulated by the Document for the two examinations as follows:

- The marking of the components are independent of each other.
- At the lower level, in order to pass the examination, the candidate has to achieve minimum 10% of the total score in the written component (12 points) and 10% of the oral score (3 points); altogether a minimum of 20% (30 points) of the total score of 150.
- At the higher-level, in order to pass the examination, the candidate has to achieve minimum 10% in each component separately (3 points/component); altogether a minimum of 20% (30 points) of the total score of 150.
- The marking is done according to the Marking Instructions Booklet provided by the Examination Centre (written by the examination development team).
- The marking instructions contain all the acceptable answers for the Reading Comprehension, the Listening Comprehension and the Use of English papers.

- The marking of the Writing and the Speaking paper is done according to the analytic marking scales provided by the Examination Centre (designed by the examination development team).
- The raw scores of the components are converted into exam scores according to the conversion tables of the centrally provided Marking Instructions Booklet.

6.3 Strengths and weaknesses

It can be seen that the new examination is a foreign language proficiency assessment relating the candidates' language proficiency in the four skills, language use and vocabulary to levels A2-B1 and B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). The levels described in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages intended to ensure the comparability of the Hungarian examination. In spite of the fact that the document in its present form is not sufficiently comprehensive, coherent or transparent for uncritical use in language testing (Weir, 2005), it provides the best available set of characteristics of different levels of language proficiency. The new Hungarian Matura examination combines objective (Reading, Listening, Use of English) and subjective (Writing, Speaking) testing techniques. Reliability of the examination is provided by the set framework of the procedures and regulations, which ensures that the same candidate with the same language competence will achieve the same result in whichever exam period and in whichever examination centre s/he takes the examination (Bachman, 1990). The Ministry of Education intends to carry out reliability studies and statistical analysis of the results in order to ensure reliability and comparability of the examinations.

The function of the lower-level examination is to regulate and stanardise secondary-school studies, and, in foreign languages, to give a certificate which is comparable all over Europe. The higher-level examination also closes down secondary studies and functions as a higher education entrance examination as well. The higher-level examination in foreign languages, with a minimum result of 60%, is also accredited as an Intermediate State Language Examination, which is a prestigious examination within Hungary acknowledged by all employers. The European B2 level of the examination also provides credibility and comparability, so it will be useful for further studies and work outside Hungary as well. The new examination is a step towards equal

opportunities as well, as, for the first time in Hungary, it provides a free-of-charge language certificate to the candidates and provides more opportunity to participate in higher education. From the introduction of the new examination the State Language Examination administered outside the public-school system will not be accepted as a school-leaving examination in a foreign language; this way the present disruptive system of teaching according to the National Core Curriculum and the requirements of a profit-oriented examination at the same time will cease to exist.

The table below summarises the advantages of the new English language examination compared to the present examination (see Appendix 3 for a sample 'old-type' written paper):

	New school-leaving examination	Present school-leaving examination
tests all the four language skills + language use & vocabulary	+	-
internationally comparable levels	+	-
uses a wide variety of task-types	+	-
tasks are based on authentic texts	+	+, -
instructions in English	+	-
only-English (no translation, skills in the mother tongue not tested)	+	-
key provided for Reading, Listening & Use of English	+	-
analytic marking scales provided for Speaking & Writing	+	-
trained test developers, moderating sessions, piloting	+	-
results analysed and published	+	-

Before exploring the Writing paper of the examination it has to be mentioned that, in spite of the huge development of the English language (and the whole) Matura examination, the examination in all the foreign languages has three problem areas which might affect the face validity and reliability of the examination:

1. The passmark and the conversion of exam points into grades (the traditional 1-5 grade-system) have been set by the Ministry of Education. The decision on evaluation has been decided on without any consultation with the examination development team. This way the examination might (and hopefully does) reflect the theories of applied linguistics research and progressive practices of testing design, however, the final grade of the examination has been decided arbitrarily. It is argued that the reason for this is purely political: the educational government is scared of a high failure rate. For this reason the passmark has been set at a very low level in both examinations. The final grades are calculated the following way:

lower-level		**higher-level**	
80-100%:	excellent, grade 5	60-100%:	excellent, grade 5
60-79%:	good, grade 4	47-59%:	good, grade 4
40-59%:	medium, grade 3	33-46:	medium, grade 3
20-39%:	satisfactory, grade 2	20-32%:	satisfactory, grade 2
0-19%:	fail, grade 1	0-19%:	fail, grade 1

2. Standardised examinations need central administration and standardised central marking (Alderson *et al.*, 1995; Weigle, 2002; Weir, 1990). The first requirement is met by the new examination, however, the second is problematic. The examination is developed centrally. The objectively tested components are marked according to the centrally provided instructions and keys. The subjectively marked components need marker training and double marking in order to achieve reliable results. For the higher-level examination the government finances marker training for the Speaking and the Writing component, however, there is double marking only in the Speaking component. This way the results of the Writing component with a single marker cannot be considered fully reliable. The higher-level examination is administered in regional examination centres by trained examiners. The lower-level examination in its present form, despite the centrally designed tasks, cannot be considered reliable as the marking of the subjective test components is done by a single marker locally, in the candidate's

school. Furthermore, there is no marker training for the use of the analytic marking scales in Speaking and Writing. The above mentioned shortcomings are the result of government decisions in 2004 (Magyar Közlöny, 2004). Before that the plan had been to develop a fully centrally administered and marked examination at both levels. Unfortunately, the educational sphere was not strong enough again to secure a better financial position, this way an examination of outstanding qualities has lost some of its strengths and has become 'only' a rather good examination.

3. Tests have important consequences for those who take them and who use the results, so statistical analysis of the results and post-test reports are of crucial importance (Alderson *et al.,* 1995). In spite of the fact that the Ministry of Education recognizes the importance of analysing and publishing these data, there has not been enough effort made and have not been enough resources invested in establishing the appropriate procedures.

Despite its weaknesses the new school-leaving examination, due to the above mentioned features, can be considered to have much higher professional standards than the previous one.

6.4 The Writing component of the lower-level examination

The lower-level paper tests whether the candidate can use the following subskills:

- achieving the communicative goal of the task (in line with the list of communicative functions and situations set by the Detailed Requirements Document)
- writing texts related to the given conversational topic (in line with the list of topics set by the Detailed Requirements Document)

At level A2 the aims are:

- writing at text level about topics closely related to his/her person
- using simple vocabulary
- writing up a short coherent text using simple structures
- expressing the link between the sentences of the text by using simple and frequently used cohesive devices

- using simple structures in a way that the message is basically clear despite grammar and spelling errors

At level B1 the aims are:

- writing at text level about general everyday topics, giving opinions
- using a wide range of vocabulary
- structuring text into paragraphs, using appropriate cohesive devices
- choosing register and style according to the text-type, communicative goal and relationship with the reader
- writing up a text according to the formal requirements of the text-type
- using the required structures, basic idiomatic expressions and spelling accurately

The requirements are given separately for the two levels included in the lower-level examination as candidates with only level A2 are supposed to pass the examination. For this reason the Writing paper contains a task that is designed for level A2.

The writing task and the text have to be written with a certain communicative goal which is clear to the reader and which corresponds with the experiences and interests of the test-taking population. The task and text do not require knowledge and information beyond the general content knowledge level of the school-leaving examination.

The candidates are required to be able to write short, personal texts (e.g. messages, diary entry, e-mail), postcards and greeting cards, invitations, informal letters, letters to institutions.

The writing tasks create a concrete communicative situation, namely, they set the situation in which the text has to be written; name the corresponding text-type; define the goal, the topic and the reader of the written communication and the relationship between writer and reader. Based on the above information the writer has to decide on register and style.

The tasks can contain the following elements:

- written prompts: notes, messages, short letters, articles, ads, parts of brochures etc.

- visual prompts: pictures, drawings, tables, graphs etc.
- written description of a situation

The paper contains two tasks. In Task A the candidate has to create a short (50-80 words) interactional and transactional text. In Task B the candidate is required to write a longer text (100-120 words) according to given guidelines involving expressed views and opinions. The instructions and prompts are given in English. The language of the instructions and prompts are lower than the level of the components testing receptive skills (listening, reading). The prompts cannot be longer than 150 words altogether for the two tasks. Any kind of printed dictionary can be used by the candidates.

The marking is done according to the centrally developed Marking Instructions Booklet, which contains the two analytic marking scales for the two tasks (see Appendix 4 for sample marking scale of the lower-level examination). The marking is done by a single marker. Different analytic marking scales are used for Task A and Task B at both levels. The reason behind using different scales is the fact that different task-types focus on different subskills; consequently, the task allows the markers to make appropriate inferences about the subskills that particular task-type requires. Designing appropriate tasks that tap specific abilities necessitates designing appropriate measurement (Weigle, 2002). For this reason the scale for Task A in the lower-level examination includes only three criteria: task completion, comprehensibility and handwriting. The major focus is on achieving the communicative goal of the written communication without placing much emphasis on grammatical and lexical accuracy. In Task B there is more weight on grammatical and lexical accuracy, text organisation, and register and style. That particular task is geared to level B1, while Task A intends to measure writing competence at level A2.

6.5 The Writing component of the higher-level examination

The higher-level Writing paper tests whether the candidate can communicate in writing at level B2 by writing texts in order to achieve certain communicative goals set by the tasks.

The paper tests whether the candidate can use the following subskills:

- achieving the communicative goals set by the task (in line with the list of communicative functions and situations set by the Detailed Requirements Document)
- writing texts related to the given topic (in line with the list of topics set by the Detailed Requirements Document)
- discussing topics in writing from a more general point of view
- expressing opinions and arguments logically and in sufficient detail
- writing up a coherent, logically structured text by using appropriate vocabulary, structures and cohesive devices
- using grammatical structures and spelling without systemic errors
- choosing appropriate register and style according to the communicative goal, text-type and the relationship with the reader
- writing up a text according to the formal requirements of the text-type

The writing task and the text have to be written with a certain communicative goal which is clear to the reader and which corresponds with the experiences and interests of the test-taking population. The task and text do not require knowledge and information beyond the general content knowledge level of the school-leaving examination.
The candidates are required to be able to write text-types which include informal letters, letters to institutions, articles for a (school) magazine, letters to the editor.

The differences between the writing component of the lower- and the higher-level paper are as follows:

- In the lower-level paper the candidate writes about everyday topics from a personal perspective; the higher-level paper requires the skill to generalise, and discuss the topic from a wider perspective.
- The lower-level paper requires the skills to write up a coherent text by using simple structures and vocabulary; in the higher-level paper a wide variety of structures, richer vocabulary and the use of a wider range of cohesive devices are expected.

The writing tasks create a concrete communicative situation within which they set the situation in which the text has to be written; name the corresponding text-type; define the goal, the topic and the reader of the written communication and the relationship

between writer and reader. Based on the above information the writer has to decide on register and style.

The tasks can contain the following elements:

- written prompts: notes, messages, short letters, articles, ads, parts of brochures etc.
- visual prompts: pictures, drawings, tables, graphs etc.
- written description of a situation

The paper contains two tasks. Both tasks have to be carried out according to given guidelines. In Task A the candidate has to create an interactional and transactional text (100-150 words). Task B involves writing a longer (200-250 words) argumentative text. The instructions and prompts are given in English. The language of the instructions and prompts are lower than the level of the components testing receptive skills (listening, reading). The prompts cannot be longer than 150 words altogether for the two tasks. Any kind of printed dictionary can be used by the candidates.

The marking is done according to the centrally developed Marking Instructions Booklet, which contains the two analytic marking scales for the two tasks. The marking is done by a trained marker in the Examination Centre.

6.6 Conclusion

As it has been argued, the new English language examination in general and its writing component in particular is a huge step taken by the Hungarian public education system towards testing school-leavers' language proficiency. The major advantages can be listed as follows:

- it has been developed according to the internationally accepted research in testing
- it tests all skills independently
- it intends to be a valid (testing exactly what it is supposed to test) and (at least in the higher-level exam) a reliable testing tool
- it gives feedback to learners on all their language skills

- communicative testing has a washback effect on teaching 'usable' language through real-life tasks at schools
- it makes language learners' proficiency comparable to the proficiency of other speakers in Europe
- it saves time and energy (the examination functioning as an entrance exam to universities as well).

The new examination makes a considerable effort to enhance reliability and reduce subjectivity of the evaluation of Writing and Speaking by using only task-types that do not rely on students' imagination, as such imagination cannot be evaluated (West, 1996a, 1996b). Reliability is further enhanced by using analytic marking scales developed for each task-type at both levels (four altogether). Most modern language examinations use analytic criteria as such scales separate out the important criteria for the skill and task and include separate descriptors for each one, so that they offer far more detailed information on the candidate's performance than global scales (Alderson *et al.*, 1995; Weigle, 2002; Weir, 1990; West, 1996a). The criteria and their weighting in the school-leaving examination writing scales vary according to the nature of the task and the focus of the evaluation. The criteria used are: task completion; organisation; register and style; vocabulary; accuracy and spelling; handwriting (see Appendix 4 for the marking scales of the lower-level examination). The reliability of the examination is further enhanced by using at least two controlled writing tasks in one paper where the features of audience, medium, setting and purpose are clearly specified (Weir, 1990).

The results of the 2004 trial examination (written in June 2004 by 11th–year students) also show that training is badly needed in the teaching of writing. The study on the results of the trial examination will be published after the first real examination, later this year. At the time of writing the present research thesis the statistical analysis of 1115 lower-level examination papers and 719 higher-level papers is continuing (Major, ongoing research). At both levels the students were administered the written components only (Reading, Writing, Listening and Use of English), Speaking was not tested due to lack of finances. At the moment the results only for the lower-level

examination are available[2]. The preliminary results show that in the lower-level examination Writing was the second weakest component (after Use of English).

The average results of the components were the following:

Use of English	27%
Writing	38%
Reading	40%
Listening	53%

These results for writing in reality are even lower, as OKI (the National Institute of Public Education) did not include in the analysis those papers that were left completely blank by the test-takers. This is a rather high number, 10 % of the papers (unpublished data accessed through working for OKI as examination designer). Including these papers with a zero result in the analysis would have modified the results, making them even lower. The present paper (due to lack of access to data) cannot investigate two intriguing questions:

Why did not every 10th student touch the Writing paper?

Why were these papers not included in the analysis?

It can only be assumed that these students did not complete the writing tasks partly because their skills are insufficient for any kind of text-level writing, and partly because some of them did not take the trial exam seriously. The distorted results may be generated by the Ministry's general fear of a high failure rate and the desire to see a brighter picture than reality. This view is reinforced by a meeting held by the Minister of Education in November 2004 for the examination development teams in all subjects, where the Minister's main message was 'to make it a successful experience for most students in 2005' (personal experience, 2004).

The available trial examination results suggest that Writing is not so much behind the other skills any more, however, the results are still rather disheartening.

[2] Even after finishing the analysis the data will be available only to the Ministry of Education and the examination development team. It will be published in late 2005, after the first real examination, as the Ministry does not wish to stir discontent in the politically sensitive period of launching a completely new system.

The in-service training course planned in Chapter 8 of the present thesis reflects the requirements of the Matura Writing papers in order to facilitate teachers' skills development in teaching writing communicatively in general and in preparing students for the required communicative writing tasks and skills in particular.

7. Teachers' beliefs and needs regarding their practice of teaching writing in English as a foreign language

7.1 Background

This research gathered and analysed information about how Hungarian teachers of English see their own competence and training needs in teaching and testing text-level writing in English lessons. Exploring this area of teaching English in the secondary classroom is important for the following reasons: teaching writing is a neglected area in Hungarian schools (see Chapter 5); students' performance is weak in text-level writing (see Chapters 5 and 6); no research has been completed in Hungary on teachers' competence and training needs in the field; students are required to master practical text-level writing competence for certain jobs after secondary school and academic writing skills for university studies (Ábrahám *et al.*, 1999, Halápi *et al.*, 1999); the new final examination to be launched in 2005 - in contrast with the present one - has a text-level writing component, and last but not least, in order to have competent teachers who can prepare students for the new examination and help them acquire skills needed for professional and academic purposes it is important to know their present competence and training needs.

7.2 Research questions

The research project intended to find answers to the following questions:

1) How confident are teachers of English about teaching writing skills compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking skills?
2) How confident are teachers of handling different writing task-types?
3) How useful do they find several proposed training components?
4) What other training areas do they need?
5) What determines the content and the methodology of their writing syllabus?
6) Do their students write in English for real-life purposes outside the classroom?
7) For what purposes do students write outside the classroom?
8) Do teachers provide any help for their students to write outside the classroom?
9) What else do teachers need to become competent teachers of writing?

10) What is the relationship between how confident teachers feel about teaching writing and

- the confidence level in teaching the other skills, grammar and vocabulary
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- their length of experience in teaching
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools ?

11) What is the relationship between the length of teachers' experience and

- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools?

12) What is the relationship between the feature whether a teacher has students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and

- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- what they need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach

- the levels they teach
- the prestige of their schools?

13) What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and
- the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
- the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
- the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
- the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
- what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing
- the age-groups they teach
- the levels they teach

7.3 Method and participants

In order to find answers to these research questions a questionnaire survey was conducted, between March and August 2002. The questionnaire was designed by the author in February 2002, and was piloted with 10 trainee teachers at ELTE University of Budapest. The trainees had just finished their one-semester teaching practice. The trial showed that one modification was needed in Question 2 to eliminate ambiguity. Instead of the original question 'How confident do you feel about handling the following writing tasks?', the question 'How confident do you feel about handling the following writing tasks in the classroom?' was put in the final version as in the pilot questionnaire it had not been clear whether the question referred to their own writing abilities or their competence of handling these tasks as teachers (see Appendix 5 for the final version of the questionnaire).

The author chose to investigate teachers' views on their own competence and training needs by using a questionnaire as no other research tool would have yielded as much information from as many sources. Structured interviews with teachers could have provided even more finely tuned and accurate data, however, the scope and the resources of the investigation did not allow for interviewing more than a hundred teachers. It was assumed that a politely worded questionnaire of moderate size with carefully targeted questions was the most realistic way of obtaining information. Another consideration was that handling 150 questionnaires and carrying out the corresponding statistical analysis should be about the limit of a 'one-researcher' project. At the same time the research results yielded by a pool of this size could definitely contribute to improving teaching writing in English in Hungarian schools. As the author of this research is a member of the team developing the new examination and the corresponding in-service training courses, the results of the research might contribute to developing teachers' skills in preparing their students for the new examination.

The questionnaires were sent to 250 practising teachers of English working at 102 secondary schools in Budapest, as well as other cities and towns of Hungary. Smaller towns and villages were not represented as no secondary schools are located there. As about one third of the student population is studying in the capital, 90 questionnaires were sent to teachers in Budapest, the remainder were sent to teachers in the richer western part and the poorer eastern part of the country in equal proportion. About 60% of the sample taught in grammar schools or in the mixed-type grammar school-vocational schools. The rest taught in vocational schools. In 2002/2003 45% of the secondary-school students attended grammar schools and 55% attended vocational schools or the mixed type (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The schools selected were mostly non-prestigious, average schools (71; 70%); such schools represent the majority of Hungarian schools and their teachers need more help to teach writing because of the need for compliance with the requirements of the new school-leaving examination. Research into students' performance and teachers' classroom practices demands a focus on average teaching situations (see Chapter 5). Prestigious schools were defined as those institutions where there were at least 2 candidates for one place and an entrance examination decided which child to admit. As there was no statistical data on the entrance competition rate at secondary schools, the

author decided on that criterion based on telephone conversations with school-masters or directors of studies. This criterion is a key indicator of 'prestigious' because it reflects popularity among parents and children based on better teaching quality and a more favourable environment for learning. Another criterion for defining prestigious schools was being a practice school in English for a teacher training institution. It can be safely assumed that everyday contact with the trainers of the host university and the mentoring work of school teachers with trainee teachers ensure good-quality teaching and application of up-to-date methodologies.

Out of the 250 questionnaires sent out by post 120 were returned by the original deadline of 31 March, 2002. A reminder was sent in early April and by the end of April an overall total of 141 questionnaires was received from 51 different schools, giving a 56 per cent return rate. Such turnover can be considered high in the light of Hungarian teachers' tired and rather disillusioned attitude to unpaid extra work. The returned questionnaires did not show the efforts that had been made for the survey to reflect the proportions of schools types, regional areas and prestigious/average schools. For these reasons the survey does not claim to be representative, however, it will contribute valuable information to the other sources investigated concerning teachers' abilities and needs.

The questionnaires were statistically analysed in the period of November 2002 - January 2003 by using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) computer programme. Descriptive data analysis, variance and correlation analysis were carried out according to the nature of the research question and the data available.

Geographical distribution of respondents' schools

	Total	%
Budapest	80	57
bigger cities	28	20
towns	33	23
Total	**141**	**100**

Distribution of respondents according to type of school

	Total	%
grammar school	108	77
vocational school	13	9
mixed type	20	14
Total	**141**	**100**

Distribution of respondents according to the prestige of their schools

	Total	%
prestigious	58	41
average	83	59
Total	**141**	**100**

These results indicate that teachers in Budapest showed more interest in voicing their views than teachers in other areas. Such high turnover (80 out of 90) might also be the consequence of the fact that CETT had established contacts with a lot of the approached teachers in Budapest, while very few contacts existed in other regions. Previous professional relationships probably enhanced willingness to help a fellow-professional. The results also show that grammar school teachers seem to be much more interested in research enquiries than vocational school teachers and more used to participating in out-of-school professional activities (see Appendix 6). The same applies to teachers working at prestigious schools; 58 questionnaires, almost half of the total number was returned from such schools.

At the end of the questionnaire the respondents were asked to provide some personal details about gender, length of experience, the age and level of their students.

Out of the 141 respondents 129 were female (92%), 11 male (8%), and one respondent failed to give this information.

The question 'How long have you been teaching English?' was included in the questionnaire for two reasons:

- to see whether mostly experienced teachers or those with less experience sent back the questionnaire
- to explore the possible similarities and differences between the answers of those who were trained to become teachers of English before 1993 (with minimum 10 years of experience) or after 1993 (with 0-9 years of experience).

The latter distinction is important because in 1993 modern coursebooks and the more up-to-date methodologies of the teacher training institutions started to permeate public education following the collapse of communism. It is also worth noting that 1993 was the year when the first batch of English teachers graduated from the new three-year teacher training programmes.

The results of the descriptive analysis show that the minimum year of experience was one year (2 respondents), and the maximum was 40 years (1 respondent). The statistical mean is 12.23 years. The highest frequencies are 10 years (14 respondents) and 14 years (10 respondents) (see Appendix 7).

The statistical data revealed that 51 teachers (36%) have been teaching for less than 10 years, and 90 teachers (64%) for at least 10 years. This shows that in most cases the more experienced teachers have replied; about two thirds of the respondents have considerable experience in teaching English. At the same time it means that they graduated before the new methodological approaches and the communicative coursebooks reached the training institutions and schools. About one third of the answers was given by teachers graduating from teacher training institutions after 1993. Theoretically, there might be respondents who, despite graduating before 1993, have less than 10 years of experience. This would mean in real life that a person with a teaching qualification started teaching after working in other areas for some time. This

type of migration is extremely rare in Hungary, contrary to the frequent change in the opposite direction, when a teacher leaves the profession to take up a better-paid job.

The question 'How old are your students?' is relevant as it is important to see whether most of the respondents teach the age-group approaching the school-leaving exam age (14-18 years). 138 teachers answered this question. The results reveal that 97% of the respondents (136 teachers) teach this age group (see Appendix 8). This result made it possible for all the answers be taken into account when the *Preparation for the writing paper of the new school-leaving examination* component of the in-service training course was designed (see Chapter 8). One of the major aims of the proposed in-service training course is to offer help to teachers who prepare their students for the new school-leaving examination. This process involves teachers who teach pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate level, around the Council of Europe scales of language proficiency: A2, B1, B2 (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001).

The descriptive statistical data show that 112 (79%) respondents teach English at pre-intermediate level, 110 (78%) intermediate level, and 63 (45%) upper-intermediate level (see Appendix 9). Naturally, one teacher teaches several classes with different levels. The data show that a high proportion of teachers teach the levels that cover the levels of the future examination.

7.4 Results and discussion

The descriptive data of the questionnaire will be presented based on answers to research questions. Correlations between relevant components will be explored and analysed.

7.4.1 How confident are teachers of English about teaching writing skills compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking skills? (Questionnaire: question 1)

This question explored confidence levels of teachers in teaching English language skills, grammar and vocabulary. The questionnaire did not specify what is meant by teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, writing and speaking skills; it relied on teachers' existing knowledge and experience. It also relied on the author's experience as a teacher and teacher trainer as to how most teachers perceive these areas. For a lot of teachers teaching grammar, for example, means teaching structures at phrase or sentence level, and teachers' concept of grammar might not include dealing with bigger units of the language, i.e. teaching discourse, which would be indispensable for the Use of English paper of the future school-leaving examination. For that matter, teachers' concepts of teaching writing might involve differences as well. As the major concern of this paper is teaching writing in the English language classroom, it was vital to avoid misunderstanding at least in this area. For this reason, in the cover-letter to the questionnaires all the questions about teaching writing were clarified as relating to text-level writing involving at least a one paragraph long text. This way it was hoped to exclude irrelevant areas of writing-related activities, such as spelling, dictation, translation or writing sentence-level units. Consequently the same conceptual framework was inferred in the answers of the respondents.

The Baseline Study results revealed that listening and writing were the most neglected areas, and the ones students were the weakest at (Nikolov 1999a, Ábrahám *et al.*, 1999). Accordingly, the respondents of the questionnaire were expected to show the lowest confidence level in these areas. Teaching grammar was expected to score high as there had traditionally been strong focus on teaching grammar in the Hungarian school system since the beginning of teaching foreign languages.

Respondents' confidence in teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills

	very confident		moderately conf.		not very conf.		no confidence at all	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
grammar	73	52	67	47	-	-	1	1
vocabulary	55	39	79	56	6	4	1	1
reading	69	49	66	47	3	2	3	2
listening	45	32	73	52	19	13	4	3
speaking	46	33	68	48	23	16	3	2
writing	14	10	66	47	48	34	13	9

The results of the descriptive analysis reveal that teaching writing has the lowest number of 'very confident' answers and the highest 'no confidence at all' answers (see also Appendix 10). This is in compliance with the findings of the Baseline Study, which revealed that teaching writing is the second most neglected area in the English lessons, and the students' competence in this area is low (Nikolov 1999a, Ábrahám *et al.*, 1999). The findings of the questionnaire show that teachers themselves feel the least confidence in this field.

The survey also reveals that the other areas in which teachers have lower confidence is teaching listening and speaking skills. These results strongly support the idea of launching in-service training courses in teaching writing and listening skills as they are not tested by the present school-leaving examination, but both are going to be components of the new school-leaving examination. Although the present Matura examination has an oral component, the survey results indicate that teachers need training in teaching speaking skills with a stronger communicative emphasis. These findings correspond to research expectations, including the area of teaching grammar with a cumulative 99% of 'very confident' and moderately confident' answers.

7.4.2 How confident are teachers about handling different writing task-types? (Questionnaire: question 2)

The task-types listed in the questionnaire are frequently used task-types of the well-known international examinations and can be found in the communicative coursebooks (mostly British publications) used by Hungarian schools. An important criterion for selecting these task-types was also that Hungarian students will need all of them in real-life communication with foreigners, for their further studies or for future jobs. Moreover, most of the listed task- and text- types are going to be present in the new school-leaving examination.

Regarding the confidence level of teaching these task-types the previous expectation was that teachers would show relatively high confidence in handling task-types that are the most frequent in the coursebooks and/or present in examinations students prepare for (Hungarian State Language Exam, Cambridge examinations, Pitman examinations, TOEFL). These task-types are: *writing postcards and greeting cards, writing informal letters* and *completing forms and questionnaires*. It was also assumed that teachers would show low confidence in *writing formal letters, arranging sentences into paragraphs* and *arranging paragraphs into passages*. According to previous experience of the author these task-types are rarely used as teachers are not confident handling them and are not aware of their usefulness.

The distribution of 'very confident' answers according to task-types

	Total	%
teaching how to write postcards and greeting cards	85	60
completing forms and questionnaires	80	57
writing informal letters	70	50
writing instructions, directions	56	40
arranging sentences into paragraphs	51	36
writing up a story with the help of guidelines	48	34
writing short notes, diary entries	44	31
writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts	40	28
writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	38	27
arranging paragraphs into passages	38	27
writing formal letters	23	16

The ranking order of task types according to the 'no confidence at all' answers

	Total	%
writing formal letters	5	4
writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	5	4
writing short notes, diary entries	5	4
writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts	4	3
writing instructions, directions	4	3
arranging sentences into paragraphs	2	1
arranging paragraphs into passages	2	1
writing up a story with the help of guidelines	2	1
writing postcards and greeting cards	1	0.7
writing informal letters	1	0.7
completing forms and questionnaires	1	0.7

The summary of the cumulative percent of the 'very confident' and 'moderately confident' answers reveals that around 80% of the respondents claim to be rather confident about teaching all the writing tasks with the exception of *arranging paragraphs into passages* and *writing formal letters*:

Cumulative percentage of 'very confident' and 'moderately confident' answers

	%
writing postcards and greeting cards	96
completing forms and questionnaires	94
writing informal letters	92
writing up a story with the help of guidelines	86
writing instructions, directions	84
writing short notes, diary entries	83
writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts	82
arranging sentences into paragraphs	81
writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	79
arranging paragraphs into passages	76
writing formal letters	65

The respondents' answers are in line with the previous expectations, however, they do not fully correspond with their relatively low overall confidence level in teaching writing (43% of them being 'not very confident' or 'not confident at all'). It can be assumed that teachers are willing to admit they are not confident in teaching writing in general, but it seems more difficult to admit to numerous 'sub-weaknesses'. From the above described results of the descriptive statistics on the confidence level of teaching the different task types we can conclude that the task-types with the lowest confidence level should get emphasis in the planned training course: *writing formal letters, arranging paragraphs into passages, writing up a story with a given beginning or ending, writing short notes and diary entries, arranging sentences into paragraphs and writing a text with the help of pictures and other prompts*. Though even the lowest percentages are rather high, the above mentioned contradictions indicate that these are the most difficult for teachers to handle.

Acquiring the skills of enabling students to successfully deal with such task-types and write these text-types are indispensable for teachers as *writing formal letters, writing up a story with the help of different prompts* and *writing short notes and diary entries* are all possible text-types required at the future school-leaving examination. Apart from academic purposes, the skills to write to different institutions (e.g. letters of enquiry to hotels, travel agencies, summer schools or letters of application to schools and

employers) as a kind of formal letter writing, and the skills to write personal notes (e.g. messages, e-mails, text messages) are also useful to acquire for real-life purposes as well. These are genres that a lot of people will use in written communication with native and non-native English speakers. For these reasons developing skills in the above task-types have been included in the programme for the in-service training course (see Chapter 8). The other 'weaker' areas, *arranging sentences into paragraphs, arranging paragraphs into passages* and *writing up a story with a given beginning or ending* occur very infrequently in real-life communication; neither are they task-types within the new examination. However, they are also necessary task-types that teach the important subskills of organising text properly and using appropriate discourse markers and cohesive devices. These techniques help the student to write the required text-types appropriately and successfully, (that is in accordance with the communicative needs of the writer, the purpose of the text, the expectations of the reader and the formal and linguistic requirements of the genre). For these reasons, providing ample training in exploring and practising the written English discourse has to have an important place in the planned training course. The researcher's own experience as a trainer also underlines this necessity: the task-types getting the lowest confidence rates correlate with her undergraduate trainees' competence and reactions to teaching writing. Their own writing skills are the most problematic when it comes to writing different types of letters to institutions and building up well organised, coherent paragraphs and passages in any text-type. This is the reason why they are unwilling to teach these areas to their students during their teaching experience (personal communication with trainees doing their teaching practice, 2002, 2003).

The rather high confidence level revealed in the answers to question 2 might reflect that teachers are aware of good practice and the necessity of being able to handle the task-types mentioned. Some of them are, however, unwilling to admit that their classroom practices leave a lot to be desired. Even if the claimed results are better than teachers' real practice, it is a very important step towards better practice if they are aware what good practice should involve.

7.4.3 How useful do they find several proposed training components? (Questionnaire: question 3)

The previous assumption regarding this question was that teachers would welcome all the offered training components without big differences in percentages as this area was supposed to be perceived as weak by teachers.

A high number of 'very useful' responses was expected to the question *'How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination'*, as teachers' interest and involvement are crucial factors in the future success or failure of the new school-leaving examination. As the requirements and specifications of the examination had been developed only a few months before the questionnaires were posted, teachers did not have any opportunity to get training in this area. For this reason, a high number of 'not very useful' or 'not useful at all' answers would not indicate that teachers do not need such a component because they are so well-trained and competent in the area, but it would presumably reflect their indifference towards the new examination.

Question 3 intended to investigate how teachers see their own needs for an in-service training course. The questions refer to the most important constituents of EFL teaching writing methodology.

Some of the components deal with the process of writing (*How to plan and structure the writing task, How to help my students to collect ideas for the task, How to make my students co-operate*), others deal with motivating students and classroom management (*How to motivate my students to write, How to plan and structure the writing task, How to help my students to collect ideas for the task, How to make my students co-operate, How to use time effectively, How to handle students' drafts*). There are components referring to the features of the English written discourse (*How to teach the features of the English written discourse, How to deal with formality-informality, How to teach writing styles*). A group of components touch upon giving feedback and marking (*How to handle students' drafts, How to give feedback to my students, How to mark my students' writing).* As it can be seen some categories overlap - for example, *making students co-operate* relates to classroom management and motivational issues and to the process of writing as well. The last question (*How to prepare my students for the new*

school-leaving examination) intended to investigate how important teachers found getting training in the preparation for the new school-leaving examination.

The ranking order of the 'very useful' answers given to course components

	Total	%
How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examin.	110	78
How to plan and structure the writing task	94	67
How to motivate my students to write	91	64
How to mark my students' writing	81	58
How to make students co-operate	73	52
How to teach the features of the English written discourse	70	50
How to help my students to collect ideas for the task	66	47
How to teach writing styles (e.g. descript./explanatory)	64	45
How to handle students' drafts	59	42
How to use time effectively	58	41
How to give feedback to my students	58	41
How to deal with formality-informality	57	40

The 'not useful at all' answer was chosen by the teachers in a very low number:

The ranking order of the 'not useful at all' answers given to course components

	Total	%
How to make students co-operate	4	3
How to handle students' drafts	3	2
How to mark my students' writing	2	1
How to plan and structure the writing task	1	0.7
How to teach the features of the English written discourse	1	0.7
How to deal with formality-informality	1	0.7
How to teach writing styles (e.g. descript./explanatory)	1	0.7
How to use time effectively	1	0.7
How to give feedback to my students	1	0.7
How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examin.	1	0.7

The components *How to motivate my students to write*, and *How to help my students to collect ideas for the task* were not marked as 'not useful at all' by any respondents. The very low number of 'not useful at all' answers indicated, corresponding to research expectations, that all the proposed course-components were considered relevant by teachers.

The ranking order of the cumulative percent of the 'very useful' and 'rather useful' answers

	%
How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examin.	96
How to help my students to collect ideas for the task	96
How to plan and structure the writing task	96
How to motivate my students to write	95
How to mark my students' writing	94
How to deal with formality-informality	92
How to teach the features of the English written discourse	91
How to use time effectively	90
How to give feedback to my students	88
How to handle students' drafts	87
How to make students co-operate	87
How to teach writing styles (e.g. descript./explanatory)	83

From the comparison of the three lists of preference it can be safely concluded that the vast majority of teachers would welcome all the training components offered in the questionnaire. This result corresponds with the earlier findings about teachers' low confidence level in the teaching of writing. At the same time it might indicate that it is easier to admit what we would need than what we are weak at. The fact that the component *How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination* got the highest number of 'very useful' and 'rather useful' and a low number of 'not useful at all' answers indicates that teachers are very motivated to learn as much as possible about the new examination and they find it important to be able to prepare students for it. This is very reassuring data indicating teachers' trust in the change, and their interest.

7.4.4 What other training areas do they need? (Questionnaire: question 3, open-ended part)

It was important to note - apart from the components listed - what other components teachers would need in the training course. Seventeen respondents offered ideas for this open-ended question, some of them more than one.

Some ideas clearly belong to the offered course components; teachers might have mentioned them either to give that particular area special emphasis or, alternatively, some did not understand clearly what area of teaching writing is covered by the offered component title. Such answers included: *'How to make students rewrite drafts', 'Correct students' drafts without discouraging them', 'How to evaluate students' writing', 'How should I introduce writing tasks', 'How to find real-life writing tasks', 'How to teach writing paragraphs'.*

The other possible course components teachers mentioned were the following: *'How to teach the summary writing component of the Hungarian State Language Examination', How to prepare students for the Pitman and the Hungarian State language examinations', 'Teaching punctuation', 'Teaching writing through British and American literature', 'Teachers themselves should learn how to write essays', 'Teaching academic writing for future university students', 'Teaching writing and the computer', 'How to collect sample materials', 'How to write effective CVs', 'How to teach translation'.*

When planning the in-service course, these suggestions were then considered as course components with the exception of translation and preparation for other examinations. Translation is a separate skill and its teaching is outside the scope of the present research. The writing component of other examinations would also not be treated separately, however, catering for the above mentioned subskills enables teachers to prepare students for other examinations as well.

7.4.5 What determines the content and the methodology of their writing syllabus? (Questionnaire: question 4)

With this question it was intended to investigate on what basis teachers choose how they develop their students' writing skills. The assumption was that most teachers teach what they find in the coursebook, as it is the most convenient organising basis. It was also assumed that the requirements of the different prestigious language exams would get a high number of positive replies, and that the present school-leaving examination - due to the mentioned weaknesses - would not be mentioned by many teachers as a determining factor. For reasons mentioned earlier the research did not expect to find the different curricula a strongly determining factor.

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis revealed that - as expected - the strongest determining factor proved to be the coursebook. The following list shows how many respondents marked each factor and the corresponding percents in the order of importance:

Factors determining the methodology and content of the writing syllabus

	Total	%
The coursebook	110	78
My own ideas and materials	100	71
My students' needs and wishes	97	69
The requirements of other language examinations	95	67
The requirements of the present school-leaving examination	86	61
The requirements of the English frame curriculum	46	33
The school curriculum	26	18

The picture reveals a rather healthy attitude of teachers: the coursebook they are teaching from is the most convenient source about what to teach, and to a certain extent, how to teach. In Hungary individual teachers, or the team of English teachers of the school (the English Language Unit), can decide which course material to teach. Their choice (among others) is determined by their opinion of the material's qualities. They are unlikely to choose a book that they consider weak at skills development.

The results also show that a high proportion of teachers find it important to incorporate their ideas, the available materials and the students' needs and wishes in their syllabus. As it has been mentioned, if what they claim they do is different from their real practice, they are at least aware that these elements are considered constituents of good practice.

Two thirds of the respondents find other language examinations important in planning the writing syllabus, which is a lower percentage than was expected. Presumably, some teachers cannot spare the time and energy to deal with this aspect of teaching as well.

The present school-leaving examination is a determining factor for slightly more than half of the respondents. Even this percentage seems high in the view of the fact that most students write the exam paper for general classes, which does not include a writing component (The stronger students pass the Hungarian State Language Examination before they graduate; this way they are exempted from taking the school-leaving examination).

It is a rather revealing result that the different curricula, which were imposed on schools without due preparation and negotiation, were not high on teachers' agendas. The result also supports the assumption that teachers seem sceptical about curricular changes and it takes time before a new curriculum becomes part of a teacher's concern and influences his/her classroom practice.

The results this question yielded show that the proposed in-service course has to explore the writing tasks and methodologies offered by the most frequently used coursebooks and how much they correspond to the requirements of the new school-leaving examination. The course should also explore what kind of ideas and materials teachers rely on.

As for the open-ended question asking about other factors, teachers did not provide any new ideas.

7.4.6 Do their students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes (e.g. pen-friends, e-mail etc.)? (Questionnaire: question 5)

This question explored whether students use and develop their skills through authentic, out-of-class communication in writing. As the answers came from the teachers, they revealed only those cases when they were aware of such activities. This question also had an awareness raising function, as personal communications with teachers had provided some surprising information: teachers had not recognised the potential of real-life writing in language development and the fact that they should enable their students to see that the language they learn in classroom situations can be used for real communication with foreigners. If teachers are not aware of this, they will deprive their students of important learning opportunities. In this question - for the above reasons - it was expected that many respondents were not aware of their students' writing activities outside the classroom; neither did many teachers incorporate such activities in their teaching.

Two respondents did not answer the yes/no part of the question. 98 (70%) of the remaining respondents answered in the affirmative, which was a surprisingly high and promising percentage.

7.4.7 For what purposes do students write outside the classroom? (Questionnaire: question 5, open-ended part)

In their replies to the question about the definition of these activities, the respondents came up with a great variety of writing objectives:

writing objective	number of respondents
- writing letters to pen-friends	(71)
- writing e-mail	(69)
- chatting on the Internet	(17)
- writing applications and filling in forms	(10)
- writing CVs	(9)
- asking for information, brochures	(5)
- writing text messages on mobile phones	(4)
- writing lyrics for their own songs	(4)
- participating in Internet projects	(3)
- writing short stories	(2)
- keeping a diary in English	(2)
- writing letters of complaint	(1)

The answers teachers offered include very important ideas concerning the planning of the in-service training course. It is evident that computer-dependent e-mail writing has become as popular as writing 'traditional' letters to pen-friends. The ratio may well be much higher in reality, were teachers more aware of their students' writing activities outside the English lesson. Other replies also involve the active use of modern technology by students (computers, the Internet and mobile phones): chatting, Internet projects and text messages. The other activities mentioned might involve computer use as well. This means that training teachers in teaching writing both in pre- and in-service education should include computer-based training as well. The answers also indicate that two thirds of the teachers asked were aware of their students' out-of-class writing activities. The activities mentioned include both pleasure activities (e.g. chatting, e-mails, pen-friends) and writing for satisfying real-life needs (e.g. CV, applications, asking for information, brochures).

7.4.8 Do teachers provide any help for their students to write outside the classroom? (Questionnaire: question 5, open-ended part)

When teachers were asked whether they incorporated these activities in their teaching, 38 (39%) said yes.

When asked how teachers incorporate these activities in their teaching, the following methods were mentioned:

	Total
practising writing letters to friends in the lesson	14
providing individual help if needed	6
collecting ideas together	4
students present in the lesson what they have written	4
practising how to write Cvs	3
teacher provides help with vocabulary in class	2
teaching e-mail techniques	1
talking to students about their writing experiences	1
filling in forms together	1
discussing grammar problems	1
students write regular diary entries in class	1
teacher brings authentic samples (e-mails, letters)	1

These answers show that some teachers are aware of possibilities and ways of developing students' skills in English writing for real-life purposes. The problem seems to be with the generally low number. In this respect the in-service course has to raise teachers' awareness and familiarise them with useful techniques.

7.4.9 What else do teachers need to become competent teachers of writing? (Questionnaire: question 6)

At the end of the questionnaire the survey wanted to provide space for teachers to get out of the mind-frame and framework assumed by the research instrument. The researcher's assumption was that teachers who were willing to sacrifice time and energy

to think about the questionnaire issues and provide answers deserved the respect of getting the opportunity to express their ideas and priorities freely. 54 respondents (38%) accepted the invitation to share their ideas.

The answers are as follows in the order of the frequency they appeared:

	Total
I want to develop my own writing skills	17
I would need a sample collection of the frequently taught text-types	13
how to motivate students to write	7
more time for preparation	7
more time in the lesson for writing	4
better teaching of the Hungarian language and literature subject	4
fewer teaching hours/week for teachers	3
collection of good writing tasks	3
a book with a step-by-step approach to teaching writing	3
more English lessons/week	2
I should watch more TV, films and read more	2
time for individual counselling	1
I want to be able to provide real-life tasks	1
better bilingual dictionaries for students	1
a writing course for teachers	1
a Hungarian journal on practical teaching of writing	1
fewer students in class	1
a collection of link words	1
guidance for essay writing for students	1
a good technique for correction	1
how to teach writing styles	1
I would need more fantasy	1

The most frequently mentioned idea, 'I would like to develop my own writing skills and confidence', reveals that some teachers are lacking in self-confidence. It can also be inferred that pre-service training institutions do not offer good enough writing instruction. This answer is in accordance with the typical remark of teachers

participating in in-service courses: while teachers appreciate the methodology update they are getting, they never fail to ask for more language practice. There is a relatively high number of comments on needing sample texts, tasks, books and journals on teaching writing. This shows that teachers feel that the coursebook's materials and techniques are not enough to enable them to be confident as teachers of writing. They would need a separate writing course book which offers procedures, techniques, tasks and sample texts. This might also indicate that teachers are not aware of the available publications. The author's training experience also implies that teachers tend not to examine carefully the coursebook's writing development units and use the coherent and well-built units and activities in a haphazard way. The proposed training course made an attempt to take these training aspects into consideration.

Another set of needs refer to time and the improvement of the circumstances for teaching writing: *more time for preparation, more time in the lesson for writing, fewer teaching hours/week for teachers, more English lessons/week, time for individual counselling, better bilingual dictionaries for students*. The satisfaction of these needs is, unfortunately, outside the power of training courses; decreasing teaching load and the number of students in a group need administrative decisions and better financial support.

The third set of answers relate to the development of teaching skills: *how to motivate students to write, I should watch more TV, films and read more, I want to be able to provide real-life tasks, a writing course for teachers, a good technique for correction, how to teach writing styles, I would need more fantasy*. The answer *guidance for essay writing for students* is ambiguous, it does not specify whether it refers to a written material, or the teacher should provide guidance or the teacher needs guidance. The idea that better writing instruction in the mother tongue will enhance better writing in the foreign language is an interesting one, the exploration of which is beyond the scope of this research. However, it can be assumed that being literate in the mother tongue and being able to write successfully must involve transferable processes that the learner of the foreign language can use as well (Arndt, 1987; Edelsky, 1982). The information provided by teachers is invaluable for the design of the training course, especially the ones referring to the teachers' own development.

7.4.10 Correlations related to teachers' confidence level in teaching writing and other factors

In the following section the results of the correlation analysis are presented. The analysis was carried out in order to find out about the relationship between factors determining teachers' attitudes towards different aspects to teaching text-level writing and possible correlations between these factors.

7.4.10.1 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence level in teaching writing and their confidence in teaching the other skills, grammar and vocabulary?

The previous assumption was that confidence in teaching writing might correlate with confidence in teaching grammar and vocabulary, as the high emphasis on special structures and lexical items in teaching writing and teaching grammatical structures and vocabulary share similar features.

The correlation analysis based on all the respondents' answers shows a significant positive correlation ($p \leq 0.05$) between being confident in each and every skill and also grammar and vocabulary (see Appendix 11). This result suggests that high confidence in teaching any area (reading, listening, speaking, grammar or vocabulary) will result in higher confidence in teaching writing as well. Although the general confidence level in teaching writing is very low, it seems that training well-prepared English teachers, who are confident in teaching all the layers of the language, will show more confidence in teaching writing as well.

7.4.10.2 What is the relationship between being confident in teaching one task-type and teaching other task-types?

The previous assumption was that there would be a strong correlation between most task-types with the possible exception of the 'traditionally' difficult ones: writing formal letters or arranging sentences into paragraphs. In practical terms it is logical to assume that higher confidence in teaching e.g. writing postcards and greeting cards will correlate with writing informal letters.

The results of the correlation analysis confirm the previous assumptions. A very strong positive correlation was found between most of the task-types (see Appendix 12). The task-types between which there was no significant correlation found were only the following:

- writing postcards/greeting cards and writing texts with the help of pictures and other prompts (although the correlation is very near the significance level: $p \leq 0.057$)
- arranging sentences into paragraphs and completing forms and questionnaires
- writing formal letters and writing short notes and diary entries.

This result suggests that developing confidence in most areas in teaching writing will boost confidence in teaching other areas as well.

7.4.10.3 What is the relationship between the confidence level in teaching writing and the confidence level in teaching the different task types?

In this question the hypothesis was that there might be a significant correlation between confidence in teaching writing and confidence in teaching most of the task types. The assumption was that if teachers feel confident in teaching writing, they will claim confidence in the constituents of teaching the skill as well. If this is the case, the significant correlation strengthens the reliability of teachers' answers.

Writing postcards and greeting cards

writing postcards and greeting cards

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	71%	22%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	79%	21%	0%	0%	100%
not very confident	44%	50%	6%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	23%	69%	0%	8%	100%

The table shows that the overwhelming majority of the respondents feel rather confident in teaching this task-type. No matter how confident the respondents feel in teaching the skill, more than 90% feel very or moderately confident in each group. No confidence in teaching this task-type can be found among those who feel no confidence at all in teaching writing, and even in that group only 8% of the respondents claim not to have confidence in teaching writing postcards and greeting cards. This task type does not seem to involve subjective difficulty for teachers.

The ANOVA variance analysis (see Appendix 13) shows that there is a significant difference between the means of the groups ($p= 0.001$), which indicates that there is significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing. This significance level means that the result is not due to coincidence, and the result may at a statistical level be transferred to the whole population of English teachers in Hungary. However, as the sample cannot be considered fully representative, it can be assumed that such a result implies only very strong likeliness. In the present question it means that the teachers who feel confident in teaching writing will feel confident in teaching writing postcards and greeting cards as well.

Arranging sentences into paragraphs

arranging sentences into paragraphs

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	57%	36%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	41%	51%	8%	0%	100%
not very confident	32%	40%	28%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	15%	31%	39%	15%	100%

The table shows that those respondents who consider themselves very or moderately confident in teaching writing claim confidence in teaching this task-type. A lower confidence rate is demonstrated by those who feel not very confident or have no confidence at all in teaching the skill. This task type seems to involve bigger subjective difficulty for teachers than the previous one.

Similarly to the previous task-type the ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing ($p=0.001$). In the case of the present research question the result means that the teachers who feel confident in teaching writing will most probably feel confident in teaching arranging sentences into paragraphs.

Arranging paragraphs into passages

arranging paragraphs into passages

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	50%	43%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	35%	56%	9%	0%	100%
not very confident	17%	48%	35%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	0%	23%	62%	15%	100%

The figures indicate that the respondents who feel confident in teaching writing feel also rather confident in teaching this task-type. However, those who are not very confident or have no confidence at all demonstrate low confidence in teaching this task-type. This task-type involves a big difficulty for those who claim low confidence in teaching writing.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing (p=0.001). Those who feel confident in teaching writing tend to feel confident in teaching arranging paragraphs into passages.

Writing instructions, directions

writing instructions, directions

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	43%	43%	7%	7%	100%
moderately confident	53%	36%	9%	2%	100%
not very confident	25%	56%	19%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	23%	46%	16%	15%	100%

The table indicates that those respondents who claim confidence in teaching writing claim rather high confidence in teaching this task-type as well. Those who are not very confident or claim no confidence at all report rather high confidence too. This task-type does not involve great subjective difficulty for teachers.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing (p=0.014). Those who feel confident in teaching writing will feel confident in teaching writing instructions, directions as well.

Writing informal letters

writing informal letters

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	93%	7%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	70%	30%	0%	0%	100%
not very confident	15%	73%	12%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	31%	23%	38%	8%	100%

Those who reported high confidence in teaching writing claim high confidence in teaching writing informal letters as well. Even those respondents who feel not very confident in teaching writing claim rather high confidence in teaching this task-type. Lower confidence is demonstrated only by those who do not claim confidence at all in teaching writing skills. This task-type involves low subjective difficulty for the respondents.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing ($p=0.001$). The result means that those who feel confident in teaching writing tend to feel confident in teaching writing informal letters as well.

Writing formal letters

writing formal letters

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	29%	50%	21%	0%	100%
moderately confident	23%	63%	12%	2%	100%
not very confident	8%	36%	54%	2%	100%
no confidence at all	0%	23%	54%	23%	100%

In this task-type those who are rather confident in teaching writing show moderately high confidence in teaching writing formal letters. Respondents with lower confidence in teaching writing demonstrate low confidence in teaching this task-type. Teaching formal letters seems very difficult to those with low confidence level in teaching writing, and more difficult than the other task-types to those with higher confidence level in teaching the skill.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing ($p=0.001$). Those who feel confident in teaching writing are very likely to feel significantly more confident in teaching writing formal letters.

Writing up a story with the help of guidelines

	writing up a story with the help of guidelines				
teaching writing skills	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**	**total**
very confident	64%	36%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	39%	55%	6%	0%	100%
not very confident	23%	56%	21%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	15%	39%	31%	15%	100%

In this task-type those who are rather confident in teaching writing show high confidence in teaching writing up a story with the help of guidelines. Respondents with lower confidence in teaching writing demonstrate lower confidence in teaching this task-type. Teaching writing up a story with the help of guidelines seems moderately difficult to those with low confidence level in teaching writing, and subjectively easy to those with higher confidence level in teaching the skill.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing (p=0.001). Those who feel confident in teaching writing will be likely to feel confident in teaching writing up a story with the help of guidelines.

Writing up a story with a given beginning or ending

	writing up a story with a given beginning or ending				
teaching writing skills	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**	**total**
very confident	71%	29%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	29%	54%	17%	0%	100%
not very confident	52%	46%	2%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	46%	38%	8%	8%	100%

The figures of the table indicate that the respondents with very high confidence level in teaching writing demonstrate very high confidence in teaching writing up a story with a given beginning or ending. It is an unexpected result that those who claim to be not very confident demonstrate higher confidence level in teaching this task-type than those who are moderately confident. This task-type does not involve high subjective difficulty for most respondents.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the means of the groups. There is a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing (p=0.001). Those who feel confident in teaching writing will be likely to feel confident in teaching this task-type.

Completing forms and questionnaires

completing forms and questionnaires

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	57%	36%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	63%	31%	6%	0%	100%
not very confident	52%	46%	2%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	46%	38%	8%	8%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate practically any difference in confidence levels according to their confidence in teaching writing. The table shows that those with high confidence in teaching writing demonstrate as much confidence in teaching the task-type as those with lower confidence levels. Only those with no confidence at all in teaching writing report slightly lower confidence in this task-type.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the examined groups ($p=0.372$). There is no significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing. The reason might be that even teachers who do not feel confident in teaching writing might find such tasks easy and non-threatening as they do not involve much text-level writing and only smaller bits of language have to be provided.

Writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts

writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts

teaching writing skills	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
very confident	79%	21%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	33%	53%	14%	0%	100%
not very confident	10%	69%	21%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	15%	39%	15%	31%	100%

In this task-type those who are rather confident in teaching writing show high confidence in teaching writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts. Respondents with lower confidence in teaching writing demonstrate lower confidence in teaching this task-type. Teaching writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts seems moderately difficult to those with low confidence level in teaching writing, and comparatively easy to those with higher confidence levels in teaching the skill.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the means of the groups. There is a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing ($p=0.001$). Those who feel confident in teaching writing will be likely to feel confident in teaching this task-type.

Writing short notes, diary entries

	writing short notes, diary entries				
teaching writing skills	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**	**total**
very confident	39%	46%	15%	0%	100%
moderately confident	39%	49%	12%	0%	100%
not very confident	25%	56%	19%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	15%	46%	0%	39%	100%

In this task-type those who are rather confident in teaching writing and even those who are not very confident show moderate confidence in teaching writing short notes and diary entries. Respondents with low confidence in teaching writing demonstrate much lower confidence in teaching this task-type. Teaching writing short notes and diary entries seems subjectively rather difficult to those with low confidence level in teaching writing, and subjectively easier to those with higher confidence level in teaching the skill.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the confidence in teaching this task-type according to the confidence level in teaching writing ($p=0.002$). Those who feel confident in teaching writing feel more confident in teaching writing this task-type.

In the variance analysis of the claimed confidence in teaching the task-types the expectations were verified: the consistent significant difference between groups shows that teachers confident in teaching the skill are confident in teaching most of the subskills as well. This result shows that the respondents' answers are reliable and the research tool is appropriate. It is interesting to note that in most task-types at least 50% of those with low confidence level in teaching writing claim to be very or moderately confident. This again might reflect that it is more difficult to claim low confidence in several sub-skills than in the general question about the whole skill.

7.4.10.4 What is the relationship between the confidence level in teaching writing and the claimed usefulness of the proposed course components?

In this question the hypothesis was that there would not be a significant correlation between the confidence in teaching writing and the extent teachers would find the course components useful. The assumption was that all teachers would find most proposed components useful. Teachers with low confidence were expected to express a need for training in all the areas offered. At the same time more confident teachers were also expected to welcome further training because of the generally low confidence and performance in this field. Consequently, no great difference between the groups was assumed.

How to motivate students to write

	how to motivate students to write				
teaching writing skills	**very useful**	**rather useful**	**not very useful**	**not useful at all**	**total**
very confident	71%	29%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	58%	38%	4%	0%	100%
not very confident	73%	23%	4%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	62%	23%	15%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate any real difference in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level in teaching writing. Most respondents welcome such a component.

The ANOVA variance analysis (see Appendix 14) does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups ($p=0.356$).

How to plan and structure the writing task

	how to plan and structure the writing task				
teaching writing skills	**very useful**	**rather useful**	**not very useful**	**not useful at all**	**Total**
very confident	71%	29%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	58%	35%	6%	1%	100%
not very confident	74%	24%	2%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	85%	15%	0%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate any real difference in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents welcome such a component. Those with no confidence at all in teaching writing find this component the most useful.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.067).

How to help my students to collect ideas for the task

	how to help my students to collect ideas for the task				
teaching writing skills	**very useful**	**rather useful**	**not very useful**	**not useful at all**	**total**
very confident	79%	21%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	34%	58%	8%	0%	100%
not very confident	52%	48%	0%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	62%	38%	0%	0%	100%

Those with the highest confidence level find this course component the most useful. The respondents do not demonstrate big differences in the other groups. Most respondents welcome such a component.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.002). The result indicates that teachers with high confidence levels in teaching writing find this component more useful than those with lower confidence levels.

How to teach the features of the English written discourse

how to teach the features of the English written discourse

teaching writing skills	**very useful**	**rather useful**	**not very useful**	**not useful at all**	**total**
very confident	22%	57%	21%	0%	100%
moderately confident	50%	41%	8%	1%	100%
not very confident	52%	40%	8%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	69%	31%	0%	0%	100%

The respondents who are very confident in teaching writing find this course component the least useful and the ones with the lowest confidence the most useful. This result presumably means that this area is a low-competence area for the ones who are not confident in teaching writing and these respondents feel they need considerable development in this area. This is also the area which is strongly related to the teachers' own writing competence: if they don't know how to construct a good piece of writing, their teaching will not be successful. Altogether most respondents' attitude is favourable to this component.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows insignificance (p= 0.056).

How to deal with formality-informality

	how to deal with formality-informality				
teaching writing skills	**very useful**	**rather useful**	**not very useful**	**not useful at all**	**total**
very confident	29%	57%	14%	0%	100%
moderately confident	46%	48%	5%	1%	100%
not very confident	40%	52%	8%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	31%	61%	8%	0%	100%

Similarly to the previous component the respondents who are very confident in teaching writing find this course component the least useful, and the ones with lower confidence do not show considerable difference, they find it rather useful.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show any significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.595).

As this course component and the previous one are both related to text-building skills, similar results were expected. In spite of the differences the tendencies are similar in both cases, only in the present component the difference rate is farther from being significant. It can be assumed that the general, all-inclusive skill, teaching the features of the English written discourse, seems more threatening than teaching the appropriate register. In the light of the results it can be assumed that teachers with lower confidence in teaching writing need more training in 'crafting'.

How to teach writing styles

how to teach writing styles

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	21%	36%	43%	0%	100%
moderately confident	58%	36%	6%	1%	100%
not very confident	44%	37%	17%	2%	100%
no confidence at all	15%	46%	39%	0%	100%

This component shows ambiguous results. Slightly more than half of the respondents with high confidence in teaching writing find this component very or rather useful. Teachers with moderate and lower confidence find the component the most useful. The ones with the lowest confidence show lower interest.

The ANOVA variance analysis shows a significant difference between the attitudes of the groups (p=0.001). Teachers with a generally low confidence in teaching writing might assume that teaching the appropriate style is a skill they do not need at the levels they are teaching.

How to make students co-operate

how to make students co-operate

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	72%	14%	14%	0%	100%
moderately confident	50%	38%	9%	3%	100%
not very confident	54%	33%	13%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	31%	54%	15%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate big differences in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents welcome such

a component. The respondents very confident in teaching writing find this course component especially useful.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.253).

How to use time effectively

how to use time effectively

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	72%	21%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	39%	55%	6%	0%	100%
not very confident	39%	42%	17%	2%	100%
no confidence at all	23%	77%	0%	0%	100%

The respondents with higher confidence in teaching writing find this course component more useful than the respondents with lower confidence levels. The results show that most respondents welcome such a component.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.144).

How to handle students' drafts

how to handle students' drafts

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	43%	29%	28%	0%	100%
moderately confident	38%	48%	12%	2%	100%
not very confident	50%	40%	6%	4%	100%
no confidence at all	31%	69%	0%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate big differences in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents welcome this component, though there are no high 'very useful' rates in any competence level groups. The respondents with lower confidence find this component more useful.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.743).

How to give feedback to my students

how to give feedback to my students

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	72%	7%	21%	0%	100%
moderately confident	36%	56%	6%	2%	100%
not very confident	48%	37%	15%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	8%	77%	15%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate very big differences in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents welcome such a component. The respondents very confident in teaching writing find this course component especially useful. The respondents with lower confidence levels also welcome this component, but most of them do not put it to the 'very useful' category. Those who are not confident at all in teaching writing chose the 'very useful' distinction in the lowest rate. It might mean that giving feedback is not their major concern, although they find it important as most of these respondents put it in the 'rather useful' category.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.158).

How to mark my students' writing

how to mark my students' writing

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	64%	36%	0%	0%	100%
moderately confident	50%	42%	5%	3%	100%
not very confident	69%	27%	4%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	46%	46%	8%	0%	100%

The respondents do not demonstrate real difference in how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents welcome such a component and very few marked it 'not very useful' or 'not useful at all'.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups ($p=0.154$).

How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination

how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination

teaching writing skills	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	total
very confident	79%	14%	7%	0%	100%
moderately confident	80%	17%	2%	1%	100%
not very confident	75%	23%	2%	0%	100%
no confidence at all	77%	8%	15%	0%	100%

The respondents show a very similar attitude to the question how useful they would find this course component according to their confidence level. Most respondents highly welcome this component. The rate of 'very useful' answers is very high in each group, which means the preparation for the new examination is high on teachers' agenda irrespective of how confident they feel in teaching writing.

The ANOVA variance analysis does not show a significant difference between the attitudes of groups (p=0.872).

The expectations in this question were mostly verified. Most course components are welcome regardless of the claimed confidence in teaching writing. The lack of significant differences shows that lower confidence in teaching writing does not trigger greater subjective need for course components, neither does higher confidence curb teachers' appetite for learning more. Out of 12, in two course components was a significant difference found according to the confidence level in teaching writing. Consequently, in the planned training course the course designers may rely on similar expectations and positive attitude of the participants irrespective of their confidence in teaching this skill.

7.4.10.5 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence level in teaching writing and the factors that determine their writing syllabus?

In this question the expectation was not to find a significant difference between the determining factors according to teachers' confidence level in teaching writing. It was assumed that for most teachers the coursebook was the strongest organising factor and that the different curricula would not get very high rates. Difference was expected in 'taking students' needs into consideration' and 'my own ideas and materials' in that confident teachers often prove to be more autonomous and more able to consider students' needs.

teaching writing skills	my own ideas & materials	students' needs & wishes	course book	English frame curricul.	school curricul.	present school-leaving exam	other language exams
very confident	71%	64%	71%	50%	36%	79%	29%
moderat. confident	71%	80%	74%	38%	20%	64%	74%
not very confident	63%	60%	79%	29%	17%	63%	71%
no confid. at all	100%	46%	100%	0%	0%	23%	62%

For those who feel very confident in teaching writing the strongest determining factors were their own ideas and materials, the coursebook and the requirements of the present school-leaving examination. For those who reported moderate confidence the strongest factors were their own ideas and materials, the students' needs and wishes, the coursebook and the requirements of other language examinations. For those who claim to be not very confident the determining factors were the coursebook and the requirements of other examinations. For the respondents with the lowest confidence level in teaching writing the most important determining factors were their own ideas and materials and the coursebook.

The teachers' own ideas and materials and the coursebook are highly determining factors irrespective of their claimed competence level. This result corresponds with the writer's expectations as the coursebook is the most important organising force in every respect of the teacher's syllabus. The strong position of the factor 'my own ideas and materials' was partly unexpected as it proved to be a very important factor for teachers with lower confidence as well. It seems that every teacher needs the autonomy to rely on their own resources. The Pearson X^2 analysis does not show a significant difference between the importance of these factors for the groups according to the claimed confidence level (see Appendix 15): 'My own ideas and materials' ($p=0.072$); 'The coursebook' ($p=0.203$).

The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing in the factor of the students' needs and wishes ($p=0.031$). This significance level indicates that the correlation is not accidental (97% certainty). For the given population it is safe to claim that the more confident a teacher of English is in teaching writing the more important a part the students' needs and wishes will play in their writing syllabus.

The outside administrative factors, the frame and the school curricula do not seem to be very important factors. However, the more confident the respondent is in teaching writing, the more important role these curricula seem to play in their syllabus. It might be the case that these teachers have more energy to consider the above factors as well. The statistical analysis shows that in the case of the frame curriculum the relationship is not only a tendency that might be accidental. The X^2 analysis shows a significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing in the importance of the factor of the frame curriculum ($p=0.025$). This level indicates that the more confident a teacher of English is in teaching writing the more important a part the frame curriculum will play in their writing syllabus.

The requirements of the present school-leaving examination is a rather important factor for those with higher confidence levels, in spite of the fact that the paper for the non-specialised classes does not involve a writing component. The explanation might be that as more confident teachers tend to pay attention to more factors, they keep in mind the final examination in this case as well. The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing in the factor of the present school-leaving examination ($p=0.019$). The more confident a teacher of English is in teaching writing the more important a part the present school-leaving examination will play in their writing syllabus.

There is also a significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing in the factor 'the requirements of other language examinations' ($p=0.009$). This result might be explained by the willingness of confident teachers to take into consideration several factors in designing their syllabus.

The X^2 tests do not show a significant difference between groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing in the other factors they mentioned in the open ended point of Question 4 (p= 0.111).

7.4.10.6 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence level in teaching writing and having students writing outside the classroom for real-life purposes?

In this question a significant difference was expected, as confident teachers in teaching writing were assumed, directly or indirectly, to encourage such activities more than uncertain teachers.

teaching writing skills	**students writing outside the classroom**
very confident	79%
moderately confident	77%
not very confident	68%
no confidence at all	39%

The table suggests that a rather high proportion of the students of those teachers who are very or moderately confident in teaching writing write outside the classroom for real-life purposes. In the sample population the higher level of confidence the teacher shows the more probable his or her students write for real-life purposes. There is a significant difference between the groups with different confidence level in teaching writing in having students writing for real-life purposes (p=0.041; see Appendix 16). This result strongly indicates that if a teacher sees himself as a competent teacher of writing, he will encourage his students to use writing in English for real communication. This result corresponds with the previous expectations.

7.4.10.7 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence in teaching writing and what they need to become competent teachers of writing?

The statistical analysis does not show a significant difference between the groups in any factor the respondents mentioned (a sample selection of text-types, to become a better

writer himself, more preparation time, a higher number of lessons, to be a better marker of the students' writing) (p=0.118-0.937). This result means that teachers' other needs do not depend on their claimed competence in teaching writing or, the other way round, their claimed competence does not indicate a special set of needs.

7.4.10.8 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence in teaching writing and the length of their experience in teaching?

In this question the hypothesis was that younger teachers with more up-to-date training would claim higher confidence. However, long years of experience might result in feeling more competent, so the correlation was not expected to be significant.

teaching writing skills	**0-9 years of experience**	**10- years of experience**	**Total**
very confident	36%	64%	100 %
moderately confident	36%	64%	100 %
not very confident	35%	65%	100 %
no confidence at all	39%	61%	100 %

years of experience	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
0-9 years	10%	47%	33%	10%
10- years	10%	47%	34%	9%

The table clearly indicates that the confidence level in teaching writing is the same in both groups of teachers with shorter or longer experience. The statistical analysis also shows this identical feature; there is no significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels and the length of experience (p=0.988; see Appendix 17).

7.4.10.9 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence in teaching writing and the age groups they teach?

teaching writing skills	teaching all age groups (11-18 year olds)	teaching only 14-18 year olds	total
very confident	14%	86%	100%
moderately confident	38%	62%	100%
not very confident	21%	79%	100%
no confidence at all	54%	46%	100%

The table indicates that those respondents who show very low confidence in teaching writing tend to teach younger students as well, and the majority of those who have high confidence teach mostly the older age group. It is logical to assume that those who teach older students feel more confident to teach writing as teaching more mature students (who in most cases are already at a higher level as well) involves more writing in the foreign language. The X^2 tests show that there is a significant difference between the groups with different confidence levels in teaching writing and the age groups teachers teach ($p=0.040$; see Appendix 18). Teaching the age group 14-18 entails higher confidence in teaching writing, and vice versa, those who are confident in teaching writing tend to teach older students.

7.4.10.10 What is the relationship between teachers' confidence in teaching writing and the prestige of the school?

teaching writing skills	prestigious school	non-prestigious school	total
very confident	29%	71%	100%
moderately confident	42%	58%	100%
not very confident	38%	62%	100%
no confidence at all	62%	38%	100%

The most surprising result is that 62% of those who claimed no confidence in teaching writing work at prestigious schools, although only 41% of all the respondents teach at prestigious schools. The very confident teachers are also underrepresented in prestigious schools. It can be assumed that teachers in prestigious schools also need training in teaching this skill.

There is no significant difference between the different confidence levels in the prestige of school ($p=0.327$; see Appendix 19).

The planned training course will not have to consider differences related to the prestige of schools.

7.4.11 Correlations related to teachers' length of experience and other factors

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis related to the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills), the confidence level in teaching the different task-types, the claimed usefulness of the offered course components, the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus, whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes, what they need to become competent teachers of writing, the age-groups they teach and the levels they teach, the prestige of their schools.

7.4.11.1 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the confidence in teaching the different skills, grammar and vocabulary?

In the previous section it has been shown that there is no significant correlation between the confidence in teaching writing and the length of teachers' experience. In this section the focus will be on the possible correlation between the confidence in other teaching areas and the length of experience. The aim of the investigation is to explore whether teaching other areas is different from teaching writing in this respect.

The previous expectation was to find higher confidence in teaching grammar among the teachers with longer experience, due to the traditional grammar focus of older-style

teacher training. In teaching listening and speaking more confidence was expected of the younger generation of teachers, as their training and the course materials put much emphasis on these areas.

teaching grammar

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	37%	61%	0%	2%	100%
10- years	60%	40%	0%	0%	100%

The table shows that those who have more than 9 years of experience feel considerably more confident in teaching grammar than those with maximum 9 years of experience. Altogether all the respondents show high confidence in teaching this area. According to the Pearson correlation analysis there is a significant correlation between being confident in teaching grammar and the years of experience p=0.019) (see Appendix 20). In teaching grammar the confidence in teaching grammar increases with the years spent in practice.

There is practically no difference between teachers' confidence in teaching vocabulary. Both groups report themselves confident in this field.

teaching vocabulary

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	39%	59%	0%	2%	100%
10- years	39%	54%	7%	0%	100%

There is no significant correlation between being confident in teaching vocabulary and the years of experience (p=0.566).

In teaching reading skills the length of experience does not seem to play a part, as the confidence level in both groups is completely identical.

teaching reading skills

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	49%	47%	2%	2%	100%
10- years	49%	47%	2%	2%	100%

There is no significant correlation between being confident in teaching reading skills and the length of experience (p=0.967).

teaching listening skills

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	37%	43%	16%	4%	100%
10- years	29%	57%	12%	2%	100%

The table shows some difference in teaching listening skills. Those who have less experience feel slightly more confident. According to the correlation analysis there is no significant correlation between being confident in teaching listening skills and the years of experience (p=0.476).

Teaching speaking skills does not show considerable difference between the two groups.

teaching speaking skills

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	37%	37%	22%	4%	100%
10- years	30%	55%	14%	1%	100%

Taking all the figures into consideration it is difficult to see which group of the respondents seem more confident in teaching this skill. Those with longer experience

seem to be slightly more confident. The correlation analysis does not show a significant correlation between being confident in teaching speaking skills and the years of experience (p=0.113).

The results show that in teaching grammar the 'old style' training still reveals itself, as longer experience yields more confidence in this field. Also, in line with the expectations, in teaching listening skills, those who presumably had more up-to-date skill based training seem slightly more confident. Listening is such a neglected skill that teachers who did not get training in teaching it do not even try to show confidence in teaching it. Surprisingly, confidence in teaching speaking and writing does not seem to depend on the length of experience. In spite of high emphasis on oral communication methodologies in recent teacher training courses, younger teachers are not more confident than the older generation. The result might indicate that modern communicative course materials teachers have been using for several years have 'forced' even the older generation to try to catch up with more up-to-date teaching methods as it is difficult to ignore their oral communication focus. Teaching writing seems the most difficult skill for the respondents, irrespective of experience. Presumably, even in recent years more up-to-date training has not been able to take most of the pain out of teaching writing. It is still scary for everybody.

In line with the expectations, there is no significant correlation between confidence in teaching reading and vocabulary and the length of experience.

The correlation analysis shows a significant correlation between years of experience and the confidence level in teaching grammar. This shows a very strong tendency for the whole English teacher population in Hungary: the longer experience they have, the more confident their claim in teaching grammar.

7.4.11.2 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the confidence in teaching certain task types?

It was assumed that in certain more communicative writing task-types teachers with shorter experience, whose training was more communication-based, would have more confidence than teachers with longer experience. These task-types included completing

forms and questionnaires, writing texts with the help of pictures and other prompts, writing informal letters and writing postcards and greeting cards.

writing postcards and greeting cards

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	60%	32%	6%	2%	100%
10- years	61%	38%	1%	0%	100%

arranging sentences into paragraphs

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	36%	40%	22%	2%	100%
10- years	38%	46%	15%	1%	100%

arranging paragraphs into passages

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	22%	48%	28%	2%	100%
10- years	30%	49%	20%	1%	100%

writing instructions, directions

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	41%	33%	22%	4%	100%
10- years	39%	51%	8%	2%	100%

writing informal letters

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	55%	39%	4%	2%	100%
10- years	47%	43%	10%	0%	100%

writing formal letters

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	16%	47%	33%	4%	100%
10- years	17%	50%	30%	3%	100%

writing up a story with the help of guidelines

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	37%	51%	10%	2%	100%
10- years	32%	52%	15%	1%	100%

writing up a story with a given beginning or ending

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	33%	51%	10%	6%	100%
10- years	24%	53%	21%	2%	100%

completing forms and questionnaires

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	69%	25%	4%	2%	100%
10- years	50%	44%	6%	0%	100%

writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	37%	55%	6%	2%	100%
10- years	23%	53%	20%	4%	100%

writing short notes, diary entries

years of experience	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all	total
0-9 years	34%	52%	12%	2%	100%
10- years	30%	51%	15%	4%	100%

Teachers in the two groups show similar confidence in teaching postcards and greeting cards, arranging sentences into paragraphs, writing formal letters, writing short notes, diary entries. From these task types in both groups the most confidence is shown in writing postcards and greeting cards and writing informal letters. The least confidence amongst respondents was in writing formal letters. Respondents with shorter experience (with more up-to-date training) showed more confidence in writing informal letters, writing up a story with the help of guidelines and writing up a story with a given beginning or ending. The expectations were not justified in the case of writing postcards and greeting cards. These tasks get so much emphasis in the course materials that, presumably, all teachers have gained some confidence in handling them.

Writing formal letters (writing to different institutions) is a very difficult task even for native speakers, and even in the past 10 years teachers have not been able to gain enough confidence when it comes to such a task.

The correlation analysis showed a significant correlation in only three cases. There is a significant correlation between the years of experience and the following task types (see Appendix 21): arranging paragraphs into passages (p=0.012), completing forms and questionnaires (p=0.002) and writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts (p=0.052). The direction of the correlation indicates that the longer a teacher's experience the more confidence s/he shows in teaching arranging paragraphs into passages. On the other hand, shorter experience indicates more confidence in teaching completing forms and questionnaires and writing a text with the help of pictures or other prompts.

The variance analysis shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding their confidence in writing a text with the help of pictures and other prompts (p=0.017) (see Appendix 22).The respondents who have 0-9 years of experience handle this task with significantly more confidence.

The above mentioned results indicate that in text-based more formal task-types (arranging paragraphs into passages) the older generation shows significantly more confidence. In the other two communicative and life-like tasks the younger generation is significantly more confident.

Altogether teachers do not show significant differences in the case of most task-types according to the length of their experience as English teachers. The design of the training course (see Chapter 8) has taken into consideration certain differences in the participants' attitudes to some more communicative or more structure-based tasks according to their experience; namely that the 'older generation' demonstrated less confidence in most communicative writing tasks.

7.4.11.3 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the claimed usefulness of the offered course components?

In the above question there was no considerable difference expected between teachers with longer or shorter experience. For reasons mentioned before most teachers were expected to show positive attitude towards the course components.

In line with expectations most respondents, regardless of the length of experience, agreed that all the course components were welcome (with high percentages of very useful or rather useful answers) in an in-service course.

	0-9 years				10- years			
Course component	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all
How to motivate my students to write	67%	29%	4%	0%	63%	31%	6%	0%
How to plan and structure the writing task	63%	31%	4%	2%	70%	27%	3%	0%
How to help my students to collect ideas	49%	49%	2%	0%	46%	49%	5%	0%
How to teach the features of the English written disc.	55%	33%	10%	2%	47%	45%	8%	0%
How to deal with formality-informality	41%	51%	8%	0%	40%	52%	7%	1%
How to teach writing styles	41%	39%	18%	2%	48%	37%	15%	0%
How to make my students co-operate	43%	35%	18%	4%	57%	36%	5%	2%
How to use time effectively	35%	51%	12%	2%	44%	48%	8%	0%
How to handle students' drafts	35%	41%	20%	4%	46%	47%	6%	1%
How to give feedback to my students	31%	57%	12%	0%	47%	41%	11%	1%
How to mark my students' writing	57%	37%	4%	2%	58%	37%	4%	1%
How to prepare students for the new Matura ex.	74%	22%	2%	2%	80%	16%	4%	0%

The variance analysis (see Appendix 23) shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding their preference of the course component 'How to make my students co-operate' (p=0.033), and the component 'How to handle students' drafts' (p=0.019).The respondents with longer experience find these components significantly more useful. In the case of the other course components no significant difference was found.

The correlation analysis (see Appendix 24) shows a significant correlation between the length of experience and the preference of the following course components: 'How to plan and structure the writing task' (p=0.043); 'How to teach writing styles' (p=0.032) and 'How to handle students' drafts' (p=0.052). The direction of the correlation indicates that the longer the teacher's experience the more useful s/he will find these components.

The results indicate that more experienced teachers have more of a need for certain components than younger teachers, although in most components no significant correlation was found.

7.4.11.4 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus?

Most of the factors that strongly determine the respondents' writing syllabus are highly represented in the answers of both groups:

	0-9 years	**10- years**
My own ideas and materials	75 %	69 %
My students' needs and wishes	69 %	69 %
The coursebook	78 %	78 %
The requirements of other language examinations	69 %	67 %

For both groups the coursebook is the most determining factor for organising their writing syllabus. There are relevant differences between the two groups' attitudes in the following areas:

	0-9 years	10- years
The requirements of the English frame curriculum	20 %	40 %
The school curriculum	14 %	21 %
The requirements of the present school-leaving examination	67 %	58%

Teachers' practical thinking is evident when claiming that the factors that have straightforward influence on their work should get priority in determining what and how to teach, while outside administrative requirements and the less valued present examination do not get so much weight. At the same time it is important to notice that the 'older generation' group still takes the administrative requirements (frame and school curriculum) more seriously than the 'younger generation', while teachers with shorter experience consider the examination more important than the other group.

There is a significant correlation between the length of experience and the role of the frame curriculum in determining the teachers' writing syllabus (see Appendix 25). The significance level (p=0.013) indicates that if a Hungarian English teacher has more than 9 years of experience, s/he will more likely take the frame curriculum requirements into consideration than a teacher with less experience. There is no significant correlation between the other factors the respondents mentioned and the length of experience.

7.4.11.5 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and having students communicating in writing for real-life purposes?

	0-9 years	10- years
Students writing outside the classroom for real-life purposes	71%	69 %

The number of students who write in English outside the classroom does not show difference in the two groups. Accordingly, the X^2 tests do not show a significant difference between the groups with different length of experience in the criterion of writing for real-life purposes (p=0.987) (see Appendix 26).

In the '0-9 years of experience' group 36 %, while in the '10 - years or more' experience group 22 % of the respondents incorporate these activities in their teaching.

Although there is difference shown between the two groups, younger teachers use such activities more in their classrooms, the difference is not significant according to the X^2 tests p=0.247) (see Appendix 27).

It can be assumed that the length of teachers' experience does not influence significantly whether their students use writing in English for real-life communication or whether teachers enhance such activities through classroom activities.

Accordingly, an in-service training course will not have to include different treatments when dealing with the importance of real-life writing activities for teachers with longer or shorter experience.

7.4.11.6 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing?

There is no significant correlation between the factors teachers mentioned (sample collection of texts, teachers' better writing skills, more time to prepare, more English lessons/week, better evaluation and correction skills, etc.) and the length of experience (p=0.788). It can be assumed that the factors teachers mentioned to enhance their skills to teach writing do not depend on the length of experience.

The in-service course will deal with these questions independently of the number of years teachers have spent teaching.

7.4.11.7 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the age groups they teach?

	0-9 years	**10- years**
All secondary-school years (11-18 years old)	22 %	36 %
Only 14-18 years old	78 %	64 %
Total	100 %	100 %

The respondents with fewer years of experience concentrate on the age group closer to the school-leaving examination (14-18 year olds) in a higher proportion.

The X^2 tests do not show significant difference between teachers with different length of experience according to the age group they teach (p=0.101). Such results do not indicate a significant difference between the length of experience and the age groups teachers teach. It can be concluded that a training course does not have to take into account any special relationship between the two factors.

7.4.11.8 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the levels teachers teach?

From the point of view of preparing for the new school-leaving examination the main query concerns whether more experienced teachers are more likely to teach certain kinds of level within schools.

The table shows the percentage of teachers teaching the different levels

level	**0-9 years**	**10- years**
Elementary	28 %	39 %
Beginner	55 %	54 %
Pre-intermediate	73 %	83 %
Intermediate	78 %	78 %
Upper-intermediate	39 %	48 %
Advanced	2 %	18 %

The figures indicate that most teachers in both groups teach pre-intermediate and intermediate levels, which are the approximate levels of the examination. It is interesting to note that the percentage of the respondents with more experience is higher at more advanced levels. These teachers seem to be given the responsibility of teaching higher levels in their schools. This relationship is also reflected in the X^2 tests. The results show a significant difference between teachers with different length of experience in relation to one of the levels, the advanced level (p=0.006) (see Appendix 28). It is very strong significance, indicating that teachers with longer experience are more likely to teach advanced groups.

The results related to the levels of the examination suggest that a training course does not have to take into account any special relationship between the participants' length of experience and the levels they teach.

7.4.11.9 What is the relationship between the length of experience in teaching English and the prestige of schools?

In this question a possible relationship between teachers' experience in teaching English and the prestige of their schools was examined. It was logical to assume that among the respondents with longer experience a higher proportion was teaching at prestigious schools.

The table shows the percentage of the respondents teaching in prestigious schools according to the length of experience

0-9 years	**10- years**
. 33 %	46 %

The difference is not significant, cannot be extended to the whole teacher population (p=0.156).

7.4.12 Correlations related to having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and other factors

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis related to the relationship between whether teachers have students who write outside the classroom and the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills), the confidence level in teaching the different task-types, the claimed usefulness of the offered course components, the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus, what they need to become competent teachers of writing, the age-groups they teach, the levels they teach and the prestige of their schools.

7.4.12.1 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the claimed confidence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)?

The major question of this section is whether the teachers of those students who write outside the classroom for real-life purposes are more or less confident in teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking skills than those whose students do not write outside the classroom; in other words whether there is a significant difference between the two groups.

It has already been shown that those teachers whose students write for real-life purposes will show higher confidence in teaching writing (see 7.4.10.6).

Grammar

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	53%	46%	0%	1%
No	49%	51%	0%	0%

The X^2 tests do not show significant difference between the two groups in relation to being confident in teaching grammar. (p=0.708) (see Appendix 29).

Vocabulary

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	37%	59%	3%	1%
No	44%	49%	7%	0%

The X^2 tests do not show significant difference between the groups who have/do not have students writing outside the classroom in relation to being confident in teaching vocabulary (p=0.463).

Reading skills

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	56%	41%	2%	1%
No	32%	63%	0%	5%

The X^2tests show a significant difference between the two groups in relation to being confident in teaching reading skills. It is true for the whole population of English teachers that if their students write outside the classroom, the teachers show more confidence in teaching reading skills. If a teacher is confident in teaching reading skills, his or her students will be more likely to communicate in writing outside the classroom (p=0.024). This result also underlines the relationship between reading and writing and the significance of reading in teaching writing.

Listening skills

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	33%	55%	11%	1%
No	31%	44%	17%	7%

There is no significant difference between the two groups according to being confident in teaching listening skills (p=0.141).

Speaking skills

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	40%	46%	13%	1%
No	17%	56%	22%	5%

There is a significant difference between the two groups according to being confident in teaching speaking skills. It is true for the whole population of English teachers that if students write outside the classroom, their teachers show more confidence in teaching speaking skills; and teachers more confident in teaching speaking will be likely to have students communicating in writing for real-life purposes (p=0.035). The results show relationship between being confident in teaching oral communication and enhancing written communication.

Writing skills

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	11%	51%	33%	5%
No	7%	37%	37%	19%

As it is an important result, it is worth repeating that there is significant difference between the two groups according to being confident in teaching writing skills. It is true for the whole population of English teachers that if students write outside the classroom, their teachers show more confidence in teaching writing skills, and the students of teachers confident in teaching writing will be likely to communicate in writing outside the classroom (p=0.041). The above result confirms the previous assumption regarding the strong relationship between being confident in teaching writing and having students who write for real-life purposes.

It is logical to presume that those teachers who encourage their students to write outside the classroom are more likely to be interested and feel confident in teaching this skill. And vice versa, those who are confident in teaching this skill, are more likely to encourage their students to write in real situations in the foreign language. These teachers understand the importance of writing for real communication. Consequently, if a training course enhances teachers' confidence in teaching writing, their students will use writing for real communication.

7.4.12.2 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the confidence level in teaching the different task-types?

In this section we are concerned with the question whether the teachers of those students who write outside the classroom for real-life purposes are more or less confident in teaching different writing task-types than those whose students do not write outside the classroom. In other words, whether there is a significant difference between the teachers who have/do not have students writing for real-life purposes according to the confidence level in teaching different writing tasks.

The previous assumption was that a strong correlation exists between the confidence level in teaching most writing tasks and having students writing for real-life purposes. It was logical to assume that enhancing real-life writing and being confident in teaching the different task-types reinforce each other.

writing postcards and greeting cards

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	68%	29%	2%	1%
No	46%	49%	5%	0%

arranging sentences into paragraphs

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	40%	47%	12%	1%
No	28%	38%	31%	3%

arranging paragraphs into passages

Do your students write in English ontside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	32%	49%	18%	1%
No	15%	49%	34%	2%

writing instructions, directions

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	46%	40%	13%	1%
No	24%	59%	12%	5%

writing informal letters

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	59%	35%	5%	1%
No	29%	59%	12%	0%

writing formal letters

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	21%	48%	29%	2%
No	5%	51%	39%	5%

writing up a story with the help of guidelines

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	38%	53%	8%	1%
No	24%	49%	24%	3%

writing up a story with a given beginning or ending

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	30%	57%	12%	1%
No	19%	44%	27%	10%

completing forms and questionnaires

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
Yes	60%	36%	3%	1%
No	54%	39%	7%	0%

writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	29%	58%	12%	1%
No	27%	46%	20%	7%

writing short notes, diary entries

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes?	**very confident**	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
Yes	37%	50%	11%	2%
No	22%	51%	20%	7%

As it can be seen from the data of the table, those respondents whose students write for real-life communication are more confident in teaching each task type.

The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the two groups (teachers whose students write and whose students do not write for real-life purposes) according to being confident teaching the following task-types (see Appendix 30): writing instructions, directions ($p=0.054$), writing informal letters ($p=0.009$), writing up a story with the help of guidelines ($p=0.048$), writing up a story with a given beginning or ending ($p=0.08$). The tendency is also strong, although not significant in several other task-types as well: arranging sentences into paragraphs, arranging paragraphs into passages and writing postcards and greeting cards.

The data confirm that those teachers whose students write for real-life purposes are more confident not only in teaching writing in general but in teaching most of the analysed task-types.

7.4.12.3 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the claimed usefulness of the offered course components?

This section explores how useful the teachers of those students who write outside the classroom for real-life purposes find course components as compared with those whose students do not write outside the classroom. In other words, whether there is a significant difference between the two groups according to finding a particular course component useful.

	writing outside the classroom				**not writing outside the classroom**			
Course component	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	Not useful at all
How to motivate my students to write	64%	32%	4%	0%	64%	29%	7%	0%
How to plan and structure the writing task	69%	29%	2%	0%	63%	27%	7%	3%
How to help my students to collect ideas	44%	54%	2%	0%	56%	37%	7%	0%
How to teach the features of the English written disc.	52%	41%	6%	1%	46%	39%	15%	0%
How to deal with formality-informality	42%	52%	5%	1%	37%	51%	12%	0%
How to teach writing styles	50%	36%	13%	1%	34%	42%	24%	0%
How to make my students co-operate	49%	40%	9%	2%	56%	27%	12%	5%
How to use time effectively	41%	52%	7%	0%	44%	42%	12%	2%
How to handle students' drafts	45%	41%	11%	3%	37%	56%	7%	0%
How to give feedback to my students	46%	45%	8%	1%	29%	51%	20%	0%
How to mark my students' writing	59%	35%	4%	2%	54%	44%	2%	0%
How to prepare students for the new sch.-leav. ex..	80%	16%	3%	1%	78%	20%	2%	0%

As expected, the data show no considerable difference between teachers' preferences concerning the components of an in-service writing course. Most course components are very popular with both groups. For the respondents whose students write outside the classroom the least popular course components are 'How teach writing styles' and 'How to handle students' drafts'. For the respondents whose students do not write outside the classroom the least popular choice is also 'How to teach writing styles'. The reason for this choice might be that teachers think that at the levels they teach there is not much need for being able to write in different styles.

The X^2 tests do not show significant difference between the two groups according to finding course components useful (see Appendix 31). The data indicate that although those teachers whose students write for real-life purposes are more confident in teaching writing and teaching certain task types, they equally wish to see all the course components, and need further training in them.

7.4.12.4 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus?

This section investigates the question whether the teachers of those students who write outside the classroom for real-life purposes have different priorities from those whose students do not write outside the classroom. In other words, whether there is a significant difference between the two groups according to having particular determining factors in their writing syllabus.

In this question the previous assumption was that the respondents whose students write outside the classroom for real-life purposes would take their students' needs and wishes into consideration more and would show bigger reliance on their own ideas and materials than the other group. The reason for this assumption was that teachers implementing more communicative methodologies were more autonomous and student-centred professionals.

The table below shows what percentage of the two groups chose the provided determining factors:

	writing outside the classroom	**not writing outside the classroom**
My own ideas and materials	74 %	66 %
My students' needs and wishes	79 %	46 %
The coursebook	76 %	85 %
The requirements of other language examinations	74 %	54 %
The requirements of the English frame curriculum	31 %	39 %
The school curriculum	14 %	27 %
The requirements of the present school-leaving examination	62 %	59 %

The data indicate that for both groups the coursebook, and the teachers' own ideas and materials are important determining factors. The students' needs and wishes and the requirements of other language examinations are more important for those whose students write for real-life purposes. The requirements of the frame curriculum and especially of the school curriculum are not high on either group's agenda. 'The requirements of the present school-leaving examination' is chosen by slightly more than half of the respondents in both groups. Those teachers whose students write outside the classroom chose factors that rely on their own resources and take the students' needs into consideration in a higher proportion. It can be concluded that those respondents whose students write outside the classroom are more independent and student-centred teachers. They engage their students more in out-of-class communication in the foreign language. This result supports the previous assumptions.

The X^2 tests show significant difference between the two groups in relation to taking the students' needs and wishes into consideration ($p=0.015$).

There is also significant difference between teachers having and not having students writing outside the classroom according to the factor 'preparing students for other language examinations' (p=0.023) (see Appendix 32). Those teachers whose students write for real-life purposes will put more emphasis on different language examination requirements when designing their writing syllabus than those whose students do not write outside the classroom. The reason may be that the language examinations students prepare for in Hungary (Cambridge examinations, Pitman, the State Language Examination) involve different text-level writing tasks. Consequently, their teachers try to engage students in various writing activities (among others writing to pen friends and real institutions).

There is no significant difference between the two groups according to the other determining factors.

7.4.12.5 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and what teachers need to become confident teachers of writing?

There is no significant difference between the two groups and the items teachers mentioned.

7.4.12.6 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the age-groups they teach?

There is no significant difference (see Appendix 33) between the two groups of teachers (whose students write and whose students do not write for real-life purposes) according to the age group they teach (p=0.097).

7.4.12.7 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the levels they teach?

The question whether there is significant difference between the two groups and teaching at certain levels is examined here. The assumption was that at higher levels there would be a higher proportion of teachers whose students write outside the classroom, as higher foreign language competence usually enhances more unrestricted language use.

Do your students write outside the classroom?	**elementary**	**beginner**	**pre-intermed.**	**intermed.**	**upper-intermed.**	**advanced**
yes	33 %	51 %	79 %	84 %	55 %	16 %
no	39 %	63 %	83 %	66 %	22 %	2 %

At first sight it seems a strange set of data implying that elementary and beginner students write for real-life purposes. This is not necessarily the case as the data in fact mean that those teachers whose students write outside the classroom teach at elementary or beginner level and may teach at other levels as well. The most important conclusion is that 79 % and 84 % of the teachers whose students write outside the English lessons teach at pre-intermediate and intermediate level respectively and 83 % and 66 % of those whose students do not write for real-life purposes teach at pre-intermediate and intermediate level respectively. From these data it can be concluded that there is more real-life writing going on as students reach and pass the intermediate level, that is the level of a more independent language user.

The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the two groups (teachers whose students write and whose students do not write for real-life purposes) in relation to teaching at intermediate level ($p=0.020$) upper-intermediate level ($p=0.001$), and advanced level ($p=0.023$) (see Appendix 34). This strong significance level indicates a healthy state of affairs, namely that the better the students' command of the foreign language, the more independent real-life writing is going on with the knowledge (and, presumably, the encouragement) of the teachers. It does not mean, unfortunately, that

every teacher uses this means of improving their students' writing skills. It means that at higher levels teachers are more likely to encourage such activities or students are more likely to engage in such activities themselves.

7.4.12.8 What is the relationship between having students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and the prestige of their schools?

The table shows the percentage of the respondents teaching in prestigious and average schools

Do your students write outside the classroom?	**Prestigious school**	**Non-prestigious school**	**Total**
yes	47 %	53 %	100%
no	27 %	73 %	100%

The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the two groups (teachers whose students write and whose students do not write for real-life purposes) according to the prestige of their schools.(see Appendix 35). The significance level (p=0.028) indicates that if a teacher teaches at a prestigious school s/he is more likely to have students who communicate for real-life purposes in writing. This result shows that better equipped schools with more resources and teachers using more up-to-date methodologies will have more students who communicate in writing in the foreign language.

7.4.13 Correlations related to the prestige of schools and other factors

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis related to the relationship between the prestige of the school and the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills), the confidence level in teaching the different task-types, the claimed usefulness of the offered course components, the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus, what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing, the age-groups they teach and the levels they teach.

7.4.13.1 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the claimed confidence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)?

The present section deals with whether teaching in prestigious or average schools has any impact on being confident in teaching different areas. In other words, whether there is a significant difference between teaching in prestigious or non-prestigious schools and being confident in teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, speaking and writing skills.

The previous assumption was that there might be a significant difference between prestigious and average schools concerning the confidence in at least one or two teaching areas. In these areas higher confidence of the teachers in prestigious schools was expected.

The tables show that in both prestigious and average schools teachers claim to be very confident in teaching grammar, vocabulary and reading skills:

teaching grammar

	very confident	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
prestigious	52%	46%	0%	2%
non-prestigious	52%	48%	0%	0%

teaching vocabulary

	very confident	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
prestigious	43%	55%	0%	2%
non-prestigious	36%	57%	7%	0%

teaching reading skills

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious	47%	48%	2%	3%
non-prestigious	51%	46%	2%	1%

Listening skills score a little lower, although teachers in both school types claim to be rather confident in teaching this area:

teaching listening skills

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious	35%	53%	9%	3%
non-prestigious	30%	51%	17%	2%

According to the data shown in the table teachers in both school types are rather confident in teaching speaking skills:

teaching speaking skills

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious	35%	47%	15%	3%
non-prestigious	32%	50%	17%	1%

teaching writing skills

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious	7%	48%	31%	14%
non-prestigious	12%	46%	36%	6%

The lowest confidence, again, is revealed in teaching writing skills. However, there is no considerable difference between the prestigious and the average teaching environment.

The Independent Samples Tests show no significant difference between any teaching area and the prestige of the school (see Appendix 36). It is clear from the data that teachers teaching in prestigious schools and average schools do not show a significant difference in confidence in teaching the different areas. The previous assumption was not confirmed.

7.4.13.2 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the confidence level in teaching the different task-types?

This section deals with the question whether the teachers who work at prestigious schools are more or less confident in teaching different writing task types than those who work at average schools. In other words, whether there is a significant difference between the two groups of teachers and being confident in teaching different writing tasks.

The previous assumption was that in prestigious schools teachers would show higher confidence in teaching several task-types.

writing postcards and greeting cards

	very confident	**moderately confident**	**not very confident**	**no confidence at all**
prestigious school	52%	45%	2%	1%
non-prestigious school	67%	29%	4%	0%

arranging sentences into paragraphs

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	32%	49%	17%	2%
non-prestigious school	41%	41%	17%	1%

arranging paragraphs into passages

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	26%	41%	31%	2%
non-prestigious school	28%	54%	17%	1%

writing instructions, directions

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	40%	45%	12%	3%
non-prestigious school	40%	45%	13%	2%

writing informal letters

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	46%	45%	7%	2%
non-prestigious school	52%	40%	8%	0%

writing formal letters

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	12%	48%	35%	5%
non-prestigious school	20%	49%	29%	2%

writing up a story with the help of guidelines

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	31%	50%	16%	3%
non-prestigious school	36%	53%	11%	0%

writing up a story with a given beginning or ending

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	21%	56%	18%	5%
non-prestigious school	31%	49%	17%	3%

completing forms and questionnaires

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	67%	29%	2%	2%
non-prestigious school	50%	43%	7%	0%

writing texts with the help of pictures and other prompts

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	26%	52%	19%	3%
non-prestigious school	30%	55%	12%	3%

writing short notes, diary entries

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	no confidence at all
prestigious school	27%	61%	7%	5%
non-prestigious school	35%	45%	18%	2%

It can be seen from the table that there is no considerable difference between the confidence in teaching different writing task types and the prestige of the respondents' schools, however, it is interesting to note that teachers from non-prestigious schools show higher confidence in almost all task-types.

The Independent Samples Tests show no significant difference between being confident in teaching any task-type and the prestige of the school (see Appendix 37). The data indicate that teachers teaching in prestigious schools and average schools do not show a significant difference in confidence in teaching the different task-types.

The hypothesis, similarly to the results of the previous section, was not confirmed. It seems that the prestige of a school is not related to the confidence of its teachers in teaching different areas or particular writing task-types.

7.4.13.3 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the claimed usefulness of the offered course components?

In this section the question whether the teachers of those students who work in prestigious schools find more or less useful the proposed writing course components than those who work in average schools is investigated. In other words whether there is a significant difference between the preferences of the teachers working in the two different environments.

The previous assumption in this question was that the popularity of the offered components would not correlate with the prestige of the school. Due to the overall deficiencies in teaching writing the components were expected to be found rather useful in both groups.

	prestigious schools				**non-prestigious schools**			
Course component	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all
How to motivate my students to write	67%	29%	4%	0%	63%	31%	6%	0%
How to plan and structure the writing task	67%	33%	0%	0%	67%	26%	6%	1%
How to help my students to collect ideas	46%	54%	0%	0%	48%	46%	6%	0%
How to teach the features of the English written disc.	60%	36%	4%	0%	42%	45%	12	1%
How to deal with formality-informality	40%	53%	5%	2%	41%	51%	8%	0%
How to teach writing styles	46%	40%	12%	2%	45%	36%	19%	0%
How to make my students co-operate	52%	38%	8%	2%	52%	34%	11%	3%
How to use time effectively	40%	48%	12%	0%	42%	50%	7%	1%
How to handle students' drafts	44%	47%	7%	2%	41%	43%	13%	3%
How to give feedback to my students	45%	43%	10%	2%	39%	49%	12%	0%
How to mark my students' writing	53%	38%	7%	2%	60%	36%	3%	1%
How to prepare students for the new sch.-leav. ex..	74%	17%	7%	2%	81%	18%	1%	0%

The data show that there is no considerable difference between teachers' choices concerning an in-service writing course. Most course components are very popular with both groups. For both groups the least popular course component is 'How to teach writing styles'. The reason for this choice might be again that teachers think that at the levels they teach there is not much need for being able to write in different styles.

The Independent Samples Tests do not show significant differences between teachers' choice according to the prestige of the school (see Appendix 38). The only significant difference (p=0.011) is between teaching the features of the English written discourse and the prestige of the school. According to the result if a teacher teaches at a prestigious school, s/he will find this course component more useful than those working at average schools. The reason might be these teachers realise more how important it is to convey this knowledge to their students.

The data indicate that both groups of teachers wish to see all the course components, and need further training in them. There is no significant difference between the preference of other course components the respondents mentioned in the open-ended question according to the prestige of the school.

7.4.13.4 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus?

The major question of this section is whether the teachers teaching at prestigious schools have different priorities from those who work at average schools. In other words whether there is a significant difference between the two groups (teaching at prestigious or non-prestigious schools) in having particular choices of the writing syllabus.

The expectation was that in prestigious schools teachers would choose the students' needs and wishes and their own ideas and materials in considerably higher numbers. Also the preparation for other language examination would be much more important than in average schools.

The table shows what percentage of the two groups chose the provided determining factors

	prestigious	**non-prestigious**
My own ideas and materials	72 %	70 %
My students' needs and wishes	72 %	66 %
The coursebook	79 %	77 %
The requirements of other language examinations	71 %	65 %
The requirements of the English frame curriculum	24 %	39 %
The school curriculum	10 %	24 %
The requirements of the present school-leaving examination	52 %	68 %

The data indicate that for both groups the coursebook and the teachers' own ideas and materials are the most important determining factors. The students' needs and wishes and the requirements of other language examinations are more important for those who work at prestigious schools. These schools have more students taking different language examinations, and their teachers might be more student-centred. The requirements of the frame curriculum and the school curriculum are not high on either group's agenda. They are still more important for the respondents from non-prestigious schools. The requirements of the present school-leaving examination are chosen by slightly more than half of the respondents from prestigious schools, and by considerably more (68 %) in the other group. It seems that teachers at average schools put more emphasis on the requirements of the present school-leaving examination as their students might not take other examinations that exempt them from taking the present school-leaving examination. This conclusion is supported by the data that teachers at prestigious schools put more emphasis on preparing for other language qualifications. Teachers at average schools seem to comply with outside requirements (frame and school curriculum) more than teachers at prestigious schools, which is in line with the fact that

more innovation and independent teacher behaviour is characteristic of prestigious schools.

There is a significant difference (p=0.038) between the two groups in choosing the school curriculum as a determining factor of a teacher's writing syllabus (see Appendix 39). It can be concluded that teachers at prestigious schools are less likely to take this factor into consideration than teachers working at average schools. The difference level is very near to being significant between the prestige of the school and taking the requirements of the present school-leaving examination into consideration (p=0.059), and also between the prestige of the school and taking the frame curriculum into consideration (p=0.072). These figures do not indicate significance, however, the tendency is important to note.

The hypothesis was only partly confirmed; in both groups the teachers' own ideas and materials and the students' needs and wishes play a similarly important part.

7.4.13.5 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing?

There is no significant difference between the items teachers mentioned according to the prestige of their schools (p=0.156).The ideas teachers mentioned are not considerably more relevant for either school-type.

7.4.13.6 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the age groups teachers teach?

The expectation in this question was that prestigious schools teach a wider range of ages, as a lot of these schools are 6- or 8- year secondary schools.

	prestigious	**non-prestigious**
only ages 14-18	49 %	83 %
ages 11-13 and 14-18	51 %	17 %
Total	100 %	100 %

There is a significant difference between the age group teachers teach according to the prestige of the school (p=0.001) (see Appendix 40).

Such very strong significance indicates that teachers in prestigious schools teach a wider range of age groups: students between 11and 18 years. This phenomenon is understandable, as a lot of strong schools took the opportunity as early as it was possible, (after the government decision) in the early 90s to turn themselves into 8-year secondary-schools from the traditional 4-year secondary-schools. This way they cater for a student population between 11 and 18. Being an 8-year secondary school they have the opportunity to select their students at an earlier age than the traditional schools and secure a higher-ability student population. This background also contributed to their becoming more prestigious schools with higher entrance competition.

7.4.13.7 What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and the levels teachers teach?

The question investigates whether there is a significant difference between the two groups of teachers according to the prestige of their schools.

The previous assumption was that at prestigious schools a higher percentage of teachers teach at higher levels, as with selected students and a continuity of language teaching at the same school would entail better language competence. The levels of the new school-leaving examination (around pre-intermediate and intermediate) were expected to be taught by a similar number of teachers in both schools.

The table shows the percentage of teachers teaching at different levels

	elementary	beginner	pre-interm.	intermed.	upper-intermediate	advanced
prestigious	35 %	45 %	69 %	76 %	50 %	16 %
non-prestigious	35 %	61 %	87 %	80 %	41 %	10 %

The data indicate that the same percentage of the respondents from both school-types teach at elementary level. At beginner level the percentage is higher for the non-prestigious schools.

The X^2 tests show a significant difference between the two groups in (p=0,051), indicating that at average schools teachers are more likely to teach at beginner level (see Appendix 41). The biggest difference between the two groups is shown at pre-intermediate level, indicating that more respondents from average schools teach at that level. The test shows a significant difference between the prestige of the school and teaching at pre-intermediate level (p=0.010). This means that in the whole English teacher population more teachers in average schools teach at pre-intermediate level. As this level is the level of the new lower-level school-leaving examination, in-service courses should pay special attention to teachers coming from non-prestigious schools. The other level of the new school-leaving examination, intermediate level (approximately European levels B2), does not show considerable difference, and there is no significant correlation between this level and the prestige of the school. As it was expected, more respondents from prestigious schools teach at higher levels, however, there is no significant correlation between upper-intermediate and advanced level and the prestige of the school.

7.5 Conclusion

Based on the results of the research carried out and described in the present chapter several important conclusions can be drawn:

- Teachers do not claim to be confident in teaching writing, their claimed competence is weaker than in other areas.
- There is real need for in-service training in teaching writing; teachers' attitude is very favourable towards the course and the proposed components; there is high motivation.
- Teachers are aware of the importance of writing for real-life purposes, which reinforces the communicative value of teaching writing.
- Training more confident and competent teachers will enhance communicative real-life writing activities in the foreign language.
- The task-types with the lowest confidence level should get emphasis in the planned training course: *writing formal letters, arranging paragraphs into passages, writing up a story with a given beginning or ending, writing short notes and diary entries, arranging sentences into paragraphs and writing a text with the help of pictures and other prompts.*
- The coursebook is the most important factor in teachers' writing syllabus; the course should deal with the evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of some coursebooks concerning teaching writing. It is also important to examine carefully selected writing development units of some popular coursebooks.
- Teachers' own ideas and materials are also an important determining factor. The course should deal with whether teachers' ideas and materials reflect good practice.
- The higher the teacher's confidence the more they take the students' needs and wishes into consideration, so this area should be exploited for teachers with lower confidence as well.
- Teachers need help in teaching using computers and the Internet in teaching writing.
- Teachers need help in finding and evaluating the available supplementary materials.
- Teachers need to feel confident writers as well. The course should provide opportunity to develop teaching writing through doing some writing as well.
- Awareness raising in the importance of skills integration is important not only because it is unnatural and uncommunicative to deal with one skill only, but also because boosting confidence in one skill will result is growing confidence in other skills as well.
- Those with low confidence in teaching writing demonstrate low confidence in teaching almost all task-types. Successful development of teaching subskills will result in higher confidence in and more positive attitude to teaching writing.

- As teachers from average schools tend to teach at pre-intermediate level, in-service courses should pay special attention to teachers coming from non-prestigious schools.

Naturally, the results yielded by the survey might not fully reflect the practices and real professional needs of the respondents. Their answers might be distorted by their wish to seem better teachers, by subjective evaluation of their teaching or inability to understand certain questions. However, in designing a course "we have to find out not only what the students need but also what they want (That is what they feel they need)" (Rivers, 1983, p.133). These results combined with the new Matura examination requirements and the data provided by the Classroom Observation Project and the Sampling of Students' Performances Project of the Baseline Study will form a sound basis for designing a training course that takes into consideration teachers' real needs.

8. Teacher training course design

8.1 Introduction

One of the aims of the present investigation was to design a Teaching Writing component of the methodology in-service training course offered by ELTE University of Budapest, which is to be run as a 20-hour component of a 60-hour update course. The present methodology update course has been running for two years and it does not contain an independent Writing component. With the introduction of the Teaching Writing component, some of the other areas would have to be reduced (introduction to testing EFL and methodology update of teaching the other skills and culture) as the 60-hour framework cannot be extended. As the classes are held once a week, on Friday afternoons (12x5 hours), the programme can rely on home assignments as well. In January 2005 the course plan (see 8.2-8.6) was sent to 10 teachers of English working in various schools of Budapest. The teachers gave oral feedback on the plan informally in early February after an unrelated professional meeting. The inclusion of the Writing component, the framework of which is presented in the present chapter, was accepted by CETT management in March 2005. The redesigned 60-hour course is planned to be submitted for accreditation to the Faculty of Art Council later in 2005. As teachers working in public education have an incentive to participate in in-service training courses offered by universities and regional pedagogical institutes (they get into higher salary brackets), CETT has not had difficulty attracting teachers to the courses. The course is planned to be advertised on the homepage of the department.

Offering training in teaching writing within the framework of a university-based in-service course is justified by the following reasons:

- The Teachers' needs analysis research has shown that teachers' confidence is very low in this area (far the lowest of all skills) and that teachers have demonstrated high motivation in getting training in this field.
- The empirical research within the Baseline Study (Classroom Observation Project) has demonstrated that the least frequently observed tasks in Hungarian schools were in writing and listening. Text-level writing tasks were very rarely observed.

Teachers' motivation was recommended to be enhanced and it was suggested that teachers should exploit sources for learning outside the classroom

- The empirical research within the Baseline Study (Sampling of Students' Performances Project) has demonstrated that students' performance is the weakest in writing. The study recommended to employ integrative and global, communicative and task based approaches in teaching and in the new examination. Skills development methods of teachers should be improved through training and teachers' awareness of basic principles of testing should be raised.
- The empirical research within the Baseline Study (Stakeholders' Attitudes Project) has demonstrated that writing is considered a weak skill by employers.
- The new Matura examination has a separate communicative text-level writing paper at both levels.

The framework and methodology has incorporated the following theoretical foundations and results of the research dealt with in the previous chapters:

- Second and foreign language learning is similar to first language acquisition and operates according to the 'creative construction' model (Littlewood, 1984, Krashen 1987).
- Conscious learning enhances the process of acquisition (Ellis, 1985).
- In teaching writing formal teaching has crucial importance both in first and second language acquisition (Ellis, 1985, Byrne, 1988).
- The basic approach to teaching writing, similarly to the teaching of other skills, is the communicative approach (Ellis, 1985).
- The course has acknowledged the importance of personal involvement and student-centred learning (Swan, 1985; Shin, 2003), the value of experiential learning and simulation of real-life exchanges (Halápi and Saunders, 2002).
- The course design reflects that in teaching writing wide exposure to appropriate models of written language, awareness raising, skills integration, a variety of techniques and practice forms are needed (Byrne, 1988; Cotterall and Cohen, 2003).
- It is important that students should be exposed to appropriate samples of language and given relevant and motivating activities to help them learn (Swan, 1985, Weigle, 2002).

- Being exposed to the written language (reading skills development) has a crucial role in learning to write (Byrne, 1988, Krashen, 2001).
- Enhancing motivation (Raimes, 1983, Dörnyei, 2001) and providing low anxiety level (Krashen, 1987) are essential in language learning.
- The natural co-existence of the language skills, skills integration (Raimes, 1983) should be present in teaching writing in the classroom.
- As opposed to product-oriented training models, the syllabus of the training course will be process-oriented (incorporating features of procedural and task-based syllabuses) (Nunan, 1988, Littlewood, 2004).
- The proposed methods of evaluation intend to both demonstrate and provide practice in testing writing for real-life purposes and have a washback effect on teaching writing at schools (Alderson *et al.,* Weir, 1990, Weigle, 2002).; they also intend to provide teachers with skills that enable students to write in a variety of useful genres they can utilise later (washforward effect) either at work or further studies (the requirements of the new Matura examination).
- A wide variety of training components is needed by teachers (Teachers' needs survey).
- Preparation for the new Matura examination, training in marking and enhancing motivation will have high emphasis (Teachers' needs survey).
- Writing for real audiences (e-mail, chatting, internet projects, applications, asking for information, booking, etc.) has to be encouraged as it is motivating due to setting off curiosity and personal involvement (Teachers' needs survey).
- The training does not have to take into consideration differences of applicants according to their length of experience and the prestige of their schools (Teachers' needs survey).
- Special emphasis has to be placed on exploring the writing skills development units of the frequently used course books (Teachers' needs survey).
- Teachers' student-centred attitude (high importance of students' needs and wishes) and autonomy (teachers' high reliance on their own ideas and materials) have to be incorporated and strengthened (Teachers' needs survey).
- The methodology has to include 'learning by doing' (teachers need training in developing their own writing skills) (Teachers' needs survey).
- Training in teaching formal text-types needs high emphasis (Teachers' needs survey)

8.2 The topics and time frame of the training

Session	Topic	Hours
1	- First and second language acquisition; approaches to teaching writing; the communicative approach to teaching writing - The characteristics of written communication; the process of writing; writing subskills	1 1
2	- The levels of writing; why writing is difficult; why teach writing - The communicative task; text-types need to be taught	1 1
3	- Planning the task; collecting ideas; co-operation of students - Enhancing motivation; integrating skills	1 1
4	- Handling drafts; giving feedback; using time effectively - Crafting (paragraph building; cohesion and coherence, register and style)	1 1
5	- Crafting (paragraph building; cohesion and coherence, register and style) continued	2
6	- Working with samples - Writing for real audiences	1 1
7	- Analysis of the teaching techniques and tasks of frequently used course books	2
8	- Testing writing; using analytic marking scales - The requirements of the Matura examination	1 1
9	- Marker training	2
10	- Marker training	2
Total		20

8.3 The aims and objectives of the training

The course aims at familiarising teachers with the theoretical background of teaching and testing writing, with effective methods of teaching writing and with the requirements and the mode of assessment of the Writing paper of the new Matura examination. It also intends to enable teachers to use methods in their own practice that reflect the communicative approach to teaching writing. Another aim is to provide ample practice for teachers in marking their students' writing by using the analytic scales and in marking sample Matura Writing papers.

By the end of the course the participants will be expected to demonstrate:

- ability in planning, implementing and evaluating appropriate writing instruction procedures according to their students' needs
- understanding of the theories behind language learning and acquisition, approaches to teaching writing and communicative writing so that they will know what methods are appropriate in a given situation and understand why they are appropriate
- ability in selecting motivating tasks that simulate real-life exchanges
- ability in creating low-anxiety atmosphere in the classroom
- ability in evaluating the writing component of coursebooks
- a higher awareness of the features of the written English discourse
- ability to integrate writing with the other language skills
- ability in using appropriate methods related to planning the task, handling drafts, crafting, giving feedback, marking students' writing and time management
- familiarity with the writing component of the new Matura examination
- ability in using the marking scales of the examination.

8.4 Assessment

The writing module of the methodology update course will have an evaluation session together with the other areas of the training in the last session of the 60-hour course. The evaluation of the writing module contains two tasks:

- marking a sample Matura examination paper
- selecting communicative practice tasks for the lower- and the higher-level examination from a set of pre-prepared tasks of different levels and communicative value (with justification)

In order for the trainers to be able to measure the progress of participating teachers the participants are asked to carry out two tasks before the course starts and hand them in in the first session. The tasks are the following

- marking a sample writing task written by a 12^{th}-year student (The teacher can use the marking technique s/he uses in the classroom)
- selecting writing tasks that are appropriate for successful writing instruction in the classroom at pre-intermediate or intermediate level from a set of pre-prepared tasks of different levels and communicative value (with justification)

Comparing the results of the pre- and post-training results teachers' progress in awareness of teaching and evaluating writing can be measured.

8.5 Awareness raising

As one of the teachers' needs is to gain confidence and develop their own writing skills (Teachers' needs survey), the constant element for the beginning of each session is planned to be a short (3-minute) free-writing period about any topic. The aim of the activity is to get in the mood, lower the anxiety level, meditate and unwind for a few minutes. The trainer, as a fellow writer, does the same. Everybody writes for himself without any follow-up work or checking (Lonon Blanton, 1987).

The other recurrent activity is intended to be a once-a-week e-mail exchange with the trainer (based on Rinvolucri 1995). The participants are asked to give their reflections concerning the previous teaching writing training session. The trainer gives a short reply to everybody, concentrating on the professional aspects of the training. As the average number of teachers is around 15, this might be manageable. Language and discourse problems of the teachers' messages are not tackled directly; teachers are assumed to benefit from the trainer's language samples. This professional and at the same time intimate conversation strengthens teachers' confidence in their own writing skills,

provides practice in writing for real audiences and raises awareness, about how real-life writing practice and meaningful communication can be introduced in teachers' own classrooms. The trainer at the same time gets invaluable feedback on how the sessions are going. If the activity proves to be very time-consuming for the trainer, the e-mail exchange might be voluntary. The activity makes it possible for teachers to reflect on their development as teachers of writing and at the same time become increasingly aware of themselves as writers. As a result, teachers develop their skills not only as writing teachers, but also as writers and learners (Shin, 2003).

The following section gives the plan for each session with the basic content, recommended methodology, procedure, materials and equipment needed. The plan is intended to be the framework of the training course on the basis of which the detailed syllabus and handouts will be designed.

8.6 Syllabus plan

Session	Content	Methods and procedure	Materials and equipment
each session	**free–writing**		cassette player with soft music as background
1	- similarities and differences between learning to speak and write: the creative construction model; comprehensive input and low anxiety; the role of conscious learning in writing	- trainer's input and discussion	
	- the changing approaches to teaching writing: the literary view of writing, the linguistic view of writing, the communicative view of writing	- brainstorming for examples of each view; brainstorming for what 'communicative' means in writing; drawing up together the characteristics of communicative writing: all contextual information present (purpose, readership, approximate content, text-type)	
	- the characteristics of written communication: everybody can speak but few can write; importance of conscious learning; a difficult intellectual problem-solving activity; complex skill depending not only on language competence	- brainstorming	

	- the process of writing: collecting ideas/information, clarifying topic, purpose and audience, planning the inner logic of the text, drafting, feedback, redrafting, editing, transferring to reader - the writing subskills: technical aspects (letters, spelling, punctuation, layout), grammar, accuracy, language use, selecting appropriate register and style, text organisation (cohesive devices, reference, paragraphs), editing	- group work: to set up the process based on participants' experience - brainstorming: what we need to know to be able to write	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; printed summary for trainees (to be distributed at the end of the session): characteristics of approaches to teaching writing; characteristics of communicative writing; list of steps in the process of writing; list of writing subskills

2	- the levels of teaching writing: learning the code (forming letters), applying the code by constructing meaningful units, (words, sentences, paragraphs), constructing text (writing for certain communicative purposes)	- brainstorming	
	- why writing is difficult: conscious effort needed; task often imposed on writer; solitary activity; no help from partner in communication; no help from gestures, facial expression, noises; no use of supersegmental features; high degree of organisation of ideas/information needed to avoid ambiguity; textual, structural, lexical, stylistic features different from speech; conventions of writing might be different in writer's mother tongue	- group work, reporting back to the whole group	
	- why teach writing: at early stages: mostly sentence level writing; aid to learning; to provide for different learning styles and needs; to provide tangible evidence that students are making progress (formal and informal testing); writing provides variety in classroom activities; effective to rely on different media	- group work, reporting back to the whole group	

	later: text level writing; to build communicative potential for those who will write in English for social, academic or professional purposes or who simply enjoy writing		
	- the text-types needed to be taught; analysis of the required text-types of the Matura examination at both levels: short notes and e-mails (invitations, apologies, requests, arrangements, acceptances, refusals, congratulations, thank-you notes, explanations); postcards, informal letters, letters to companies/institutions, letters to the editor, letters for papers/magazines	- brainstorming what text-types teachers teach; comparing these with the Matura requirements	
	- how can the above text-types be taught communicatively?	- group work: from a list of tasks to select communicative writing tasks; whole-group discussion of the results and features of the communicative task (see Appendix 42)	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; printed summary: why writing is a difficult skill, reasons for teaching writing, text-types to

			teach, collection of writing tasks (to select communicative ones)
3	- planning the task: setting up the steps and the time required - collecting ideas: brainstorming techniques; quick writing collecting ideas - co-operation of students: brainstorming as a group; select ideas from quick writing in pairs; drafting in pairs or groups; giving peer feedback - enhancing motivation: task-based instruction; real personal communication through writing to teacher or peers - integrating skills: no writing instruction without skills integration (brainstorming through speaking; reading model texts and written prompts to task; gathering information through reading and speaking to sources)	- group work: examining a concrete writing task: (see Task 9 of Appendix 42) - planning the steps and timeframe - planning techniques for collecting ideas, drafting, re-drafting, editing, co-operation, motivating students, skills integration - brainstorming: other ways of collecting ideas, enhancing motivation, co-operation and skills integration	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; writing task sheet

4	- techniques of handling drafts; grading teacher's feedback (first on content and organisation of ideas, later on text organisation and language); the number of drafts; advantages and disadvantages of peer feedback; effective use of time (thorough planning of the whole process); format of teacher's feedback on drafts (emphasis on positive features)	- pair work: giving written feedback on sample first draft - pair work: giving written feedback on second draft - whole-group discussion: format of feedback; advantages and disadvantages of peer feedback; the number of drafts; effective use of time	
	- crafting: the features of English writing; paragraph building; the cohesive devices; functions used in the text (narrating, describing, persuading, arguing); selecting register and style	- whole-group discussion of participants' homework (browsing the course materials they use for successful text-building practice tasks); strengths and weaknesses of tasks presented	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; sample first draft, sample second draft, sheet of symbols

			for indicating errors, pre-arranged copies of teachers' homework tasks
5	- continued	- other useful tasks: scrambled sentences; scrambled paragraphs; multiple choice or cloze task for linking words and phrases; completing topic sentences; supplying beginning and/or end of text; turning informal text into formal and vice versa	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; teachers' homework tasks, collection of other tasks
6	- working with samples: importance of meaningful input; importance of reading; characteristics of the text-types need to be taught; selecting a collection of suitable samples for A2-B1 level and B2 level	- group work: discussion of participants' homework (collecting authentic and semi-authentic sample texts of the genres taught for classroom use; selecting the best text for each	

	- writing for real audiences: types of possible written communication (e-mail, pen friends, internet projects, enquiries, booking, application, etc.); using modern technology; the motivation factor	genre - whole-group: discussion of the selected texts; deciding on the collection of best samples - brainstorming and comparing teachers' experience; ways of involving students in such activities; the teacher's role	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; collection of the selected text-types
7	- analysis of the teaching techniques and tasks of frequently used course books: analysing successful attempts (steps, procedures, techniques, task sequences) at teaching to write a certain text-type	- group work: discussion of participants' homework (browsing the course materials they use for successful techniques and tasks to teach a certain text-type, e.g. letter of complaint, informal letter, greeting card, etc.); each group to select the best two procedures/techniques/tasks	

		- whole group discussion: of selected material; strengths and weaknesses of techniques and tasks offered by course materials	board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; collection of the selected procedures/techniques/tasks
8	- Testing writing: subjective testing; aiming at enhancing reliability and decreasing subjectivity; the washback and washforward effect of testing; holistic marking (advantages and disadvantages); constituents of writing need to be assessed (selecting criteria); the individual marking scale; the global marking scale; the analytic marking scale; selecting marking scale for classroom use; the analytic scales of the new Matura examination	- trainer's input and discussion - whole group: studying and comparing a sample individual, global and analytic marking scale (see Appendix 43); discussing their advantages and disadvantages for marking in the lesson and exam situations - whole group: studying the	

	- The requirements of the Matura examination	analytic scales of the Matura examination; discussing appropriateness/inappropriateness for levels and task-types - group contest: putting jumbled-up statements in the right place according to which level of the Matura writing component they characterise; some are not true for the Matura Writing paper; (each group gets an equal number of statements; statements need to be put under four headings up the wall: lower-level Writing paper; higher-level Writing paper; both (if the statement is true for both); none (if it is not true for either); discussion (winning group is the one putting the highest number of statements in the right place)	

			board, flipchart paper, felt pens, blu tack; sample individual, global and analytic marking scales; four analytic scales of the Matura examination (for Task A & B at each level); enlarged slips of statements
9	- -Marker training: to enhance reliability and decrease subjectivity; marking sample papers of the 2004 trial examination at both levels; comparing results with examination design team's marking; marking further papers to reach higher inter-rater reliability	- individual: reading six completed samples of Task A of the lower-level trial examination (see Appendix 44) - putting them in ranking order holistically - comparing the results - studying the marking scale and everybody marking one of the papers individually; comparing the marks in each criterion; discussing and justifying	

		decisions until coming to agreement; comparing the results with the results of the examination design team - marking and discussing two more papers - same procedure with Task B (see Appendix 45)	sample papers of Task A & B of the lower-level examination; marking scales
10	Marker training continued	- same procedure with two higher-level samples of Task A - same procedure with two higher-level samples of Task B	sample papers of Task A & B of the higher-level examination; marking scales

8.7 Feedback from practising teachers

As it has not been possible to run a trial course, it was important to get feedback on it at the planning stage. The attitude of the ten practising teachers of English who gave feedback in the form of an informal discussion was very positive. They appreciated the following features of the course:

- the opportunity to get marker training for both levels of the new Matura examination
- familiarization with the examination task-types and the assessment system
- there is some opportunity to write and improve their own writing skills
- learning by doing will help improve teachers' own writing skills and will help them understand what their students are going through
- they will understand better why they need to teach writing
- the plan reflects friendly collaborative teaching atmosphere
- the plan shows practical classroom procedures/tasks for teaching communicative writing
- the opportunity to learn how to rely on personal involvement and motivate students (real letters and e-mails to the trainer and each other)
- the course seems to help with the eternal problem of giving feedback and marking
- selecting sample texts for the different text-types will be useful
- the opportunity to evaluate coursebook tasks and techniques
- the opportunity to learn how to encourage students to write 'real-life' texts (CVs, asking for info, e-mails, etc).

The feedback received involved two negative comments as well:

- the plan is too ambitious, it is impossible to do so much in a 20-hour course
- there is too much theory.

In order to decide if the programme is too dense a full course will have to run. It is possible that the components will have to be changed or rearranged after the course evaluation. As for the second comment there are altogether three hours that could be called theoretical. The theoretical background of language learning and acquisition, the features and process of written communication and the writing subskills are

indispensable for working successfully as teachers of writing, so this component will remain in the programme.

8.8 Conclusion

The in-service training course plan presented above displays features of innovativeness that are unique in the Hungarian secondary and higher education system. The uniqueness originates from the complex planning and thorough background research, which has taken into consideration a wide variety of features necessary for substantial improvement in teachers' skills to teach text-level writing and in students' skills to express themselves in writing. The plan presented has incorporated research in applied linguistics into teaching writing, the results of Hungarian empirical research into teaching writing and student performances, the need to enhance the use of communicative methodologies in teaching writing, teachers' need for gaining confidence in teaching writing, for improving their own writing skills, for improving weak areas in teaching writing and their need for developing skills to prepare students for the new Matura examination.

The above plan is sufficient for being submitted for accreditation to the Faculty of Art Council. After approval the necessary supplementation of materials will have to be completed: (handouts, summaries, sample tasks). The weakness of the plan might be the time constraints; the presented content could be covered in a more relaxed way with more teaching hours. As providing low anxiety level is essential for all kinds of learning, it has to be achieved in in-service courses as well. Consequently a more relaxed time frame would serve these purposes better. At the moment it does not seem possible to reach a higher number of hours, however, if any such opportunity appears in the future, the course will be extended.

9. Summary and final conclusions

9.1 The research questions

The research carried out within the framework of the present thesis investigating teaching writing in English in the Hungarian secondary-schools intended to find answers to the following questions:

- What is the impact of the history of foreign language teaching in Hungary on the present-day English language teaching situation and the English language skills of the population?
- What findings of theoretical and applied research into language acquisition and writing instruction methodology are applicable in the development of writing instruction in the Hungarian secondary schools?
- What curricular and examination development processes influence the content and methodology of teaching writing in the Hungarian secondary-schools?
- What are the most important features of teachers' classroom practice in teaching writing?
- How proficient are Hungarian secondary-school students in EFL writing?
- What is the impact of the new Matura examination on teaching and testing writing in the Hungarian secondary-schools?
- How do teachers see their own competence in teaching and testing writing?
- What training needs do Hungarian teachers have in teaching and testing writing?
- How confident are teachers of English about teaching writing skills compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking skills?
- How confident are teachers of handling different writing task-types?
- How useful do they find several proposed training components?
- What other training areas do they need?
- What determines the content and the methodology of their writing syllabus?
- Do their students write in English for real-life purposes outside the classroom?
- For what purposes do students write outside the classroom?
- Do teachers provide any help for their students to write outside the classroom?
- What else do teachers need to become competent teachers of writing?

- What is the relationship between how confident teachers feel about teaching writing and
  - the confidence level in teaching the other skills, grammar and vocabulary
  - the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
  - the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
  - the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
  - whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
  - what they need to become competent teachers of writing
  - their length of experience in teaching
  - the age-groups they teach
  - the levels they teach
  - the prestige of their schools ?

- What is the relationship between the length of teachers' experience and
  - the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
  - the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
  - the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
  - the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
  - whether their students communicate in writing for real-life purposes
  - what they need to become competent teachers of writing
  - the age-groups they teach
  - the levels they teach
  - the prestige of their schools?

- What is the relationship between the feature whether a teacher has students who communicate in writing for real-life purposes and
  - the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
  - the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
  - the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
  - the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
  - what they need to become competent teachers of writing
  - the age-groups they teach

the levels they teach
the prestige of their schools?

- What is the relationship between the prestige of the school and
  the claimed competence in the teaching areas (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills)
  the confidence level in teaching the different task-types
  the claimed usefulness of the offered course components
  the factors determining teachers' writing syllabus
  what teachers need to become competent teachers of writing
  the age-groups they teach
  the levels they teach

The final aim of the investigation was to incorporate the findings of the above research questions into an in-service course syllabus for practising teachers to improve their skills in teaching and testing writing.

9.2 The findings of the research

The most important answers the investigation yielded are summarized in the section below.

The investigation of the literature on the history of foreign language teaching in Hungary revealed that, due to the long linguistic and political isolation of the country, the foreign language competence of the population was rather low. Long years of planned educational change and great efforts at government level are needed to raise the foreign language competence (mostly English and German) of the population.

The analysis of the literature and the related official documents of the Hungarian curriculum reform has revealed that educational change is a controversial issue in Hungary. Curricular changes and the examination reform have been proceeding with great difficulty due to political battles and conflicting vested interests. However, despite teachers' disillusionment, survey and interview results show that teachers are interested in the examination reform and to some extent in developing their teaching skills as well.

It is the teacher training institutions that have the biggest opportunity to influence the quality of teaching at schools as they are closer to the classrooms than policy-makers, thus they can greatly contribute to the educational reform by improving training and advocating progressive theories and practices. Pre-service training courses can make it possible for the newly trained teachers to introduce different practices in their schools. Furthermore, setting up in-service training courses could contribute to providing a methodology and language update for practising teachers.

Despite some controversial and ill-considered attempts, the governments after 1989 have introduced crucial measures in the field of foreign language teaching and teacher training in order to increase the foreign language competence of the population. The free choice of up-to-date teaching materials, the introduction of high-quality teacher training programmes, the reflection of communicative teaching approaches and methodologies in the National Core Curriculum, the development of a standardised school-leaving examination which is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages are necessary steps that – in the long run - will contribute to the improvement of the foreign language competence of the population.

The findings of the empirical research on teachers' classroom practices, students' performances and stakeholders' attitudes have revealed that the positive attempts at government level and the application of more up-to-date teacher training methodologies have not started to show spectacular results yet. The evidence of the Classroom Observation Project and The Sampling of Students' Performances Project show that most classrooms in Hungary follow the model of skill- and grammar-based teaching with not enough emphasis on motivating and using methodologies that enable students to interact in English in meaningful situations. There is stress on error correction and the threatening atmosphere of grades and authoritarian teacher's attitudes are present. School practice is still far from realising the above mentioned progressive features, still, through in- and pre-service teaching they have started to gradually penetrate the classrooms. Most observed tasks were aimed at developing grammar and speaking skills, and least frequently the observers found tasks developing writing and listening skills. The students' performance level in the productive and receptive skills appeared to be weak. Almost 40% of the students were below 60% (the European Threshold level). The students' achievement was weakest in the writing skills followed by speaking. The

questionnaires and interviews with teachers, students, parents and headmasters revealed that the present school-leaving examination is of low prestige and is not considered reliable. The interviews with employers (hotels, banks, travel agencies) showed that the school-leaver applicants' speaking skills were better than their writing skills. The weakest areas were writing and understanding the spoken language. The results of the empirical research imply high demand for methodology update courses for teachers in teaching writing so that the level of teaching and testing writing could be improved at schools.

As has been argued, the new English language Matura examination in general and its writing component in particular is a huge step taken by the Hungarian public education system towards testing school-leavers' language proficiency in a standardised way. The major advantages of the new examination can be listed as follows:

- it has been developed according to the internationally accepted research in testing;
- it tests all skills independently;
- it intends to be a valid (testing exactly what it is supposed to test) and (at least in the higher-level exam) a reliable testing tool;
- it gives feedback to learners on all their language skills;
- communicative testing has a washback effect on teaching 'usable' language through real-life tasks at schools;
- it makes language learners' proficiency comparable to the proficiency of other speakers in Europe;
- it saves time and energy (the examination functioning as an entrance exam to universities as well).

The examination reform with the new English language Matura examination has made a considerable effort to reflect the communicative view of teaching writing by introducing tasks that imitate real-life writing contexts, which is expected to have a beneficial washback effect on teachers' classroom practice as well. The procedures, specifications and attempts at standardisation reflect the application of the latest results of European testing research. The examination enhances testing reliability and reduces subjectivity of the evaluation. In the Writing component reliability is further enhanced by using analytic marking scales developed for each task-type at both levels. The available trial

examination results have revealed rather weak writing skills of the test-taking population. The examination reform is a huge step towards improving the students' language skills, however, the results of the process will be seen only years later, after the washback effect has penetrated teaching. At the moment the quality of testing English language competence is at a much higher level than the quality of teaching at schools, however, this is a natural step towards improvement in teaching as well.

The analysis of language learning and acquisition theories, the exploration of research into acquiring the writing subskills in the mother tongue and foreign languages, and the investigation of the methodologies in teaching writing in English as a foreign language have yielded a theoretical framework for writing instruction which the writer of the present thesis considers indispensable for the designing of writing syllabuses in the primary and secondary public education, and in pre-and in-service teacher training programmes. For this reason the theoretical framework described below was the theoretical basis for the design of the presented in-service training course plan of Chapter 8.

1. Second and foreign language learning is similar to first language acquisition and operates according to the 'creative construction' model.

In terms of effective language teaching and learning the above premise indicates that teachers should be aware that language competence does not come as automatic output after input has taken place (Krashen, 1987, 2001; Littlewood, 1984; Ellis, 1985). The learner creates and modifies his or her own system as a result of internal processing of the input received through exposure to the language and language instruction. The teaching process requires systematic work, providing as much exposure to the language as the student can process. It also requires a lot of patience of the teacher, as spontaneous utterances may evolve much later than the input - after students have processed the information and built it in their individual internal systems. Because of the above mentioned nature of the learning/acquisition process, teachers should be aware of the individual differences in the pace and mode of the learning of their students.

Byrne (1988) sums up clearly the consequences of this theory for the planning of the writing syllabus and the reasons for the need of systematic and consistent work in teaching writing programmes:

- writing requires special teaching;
- wide exposure to appropriate models of written language is needed;
- awareness raising in how to communicate through the written medium is important;
- teaching to write different types of texts is necessary;
- writing tasks should be made realistic and relevant;
- writing should be integrated with other skills;
- teachers should be able to use a variety of techniques and practice formats;
- teachers should provide appropriate support;
- teachers should be sympathetic.

Tomlinson's (1983), Lonon Blanton's (1987) and Cotterall and Cohen's (2003) methods are successful examples of incorporating authentic samples of writing in all the stages (from controlled through guided to free) of writing development. This approach underlines the importance of exposing students to authentic writing from early stages.

The theoretical basis of Tomlinson's, Lonon Blanton's and Cotterall and Cohen's approach to teaching writing lies in the language acquisition theory, which stresses the importance of rich, varied, meaningful input, and frequent, motivated participation in authentic discourse. They recognise that writing is a conscious process even for native speakers that involves conscious and systematic learning and includes controlled and guided practice stages. This helps the students to improve their conscious knowledge of the accuracy, effectiveness and appropriacy of the written text. The final free stage provides students the opportunity to enjoy and participate in authentic discourse.

The communicative approach in language teaching has evolved from the 'creative construction' theory, which is well reflected in Swan's summary: "The important thing is that students should be exposed to appropriate samples of language and given relevant and motivating activities to help them learn. This is what the Communicative Approach does" (1985b, p.11). Authors who reflect the communicative approach to language teaching and teaching writing in their practice and research (Hedge,1988;

Byrne 1988; Tribble, 1996; Lonon Blanton, 1987; Randsell, 1993; and Silva et al, 1994) place high emphasis on the necessity of taking individual differences in the pace and mode of learning into consideration as well. Randsell's 'slow creation' theory illustrates well the student's need of time to 'digest' input and produce language when they are ready, and the need for the teacher's patience and empathy throughout the process.

2. Conscious learning enhances the process of acquisition; in teaching writing formal teaching has crucial importance.

In the approach to teaching writing and designing training programmes for teachers of English, the author of the present thesis has accepted the view on the possible transfer of learned knowledge to the acquired knowledge (Ellis, 1995). Spontaneous exposure to the language and conscious learning at the same time facilitate reaching the optimum level of language proficiency. Even native speakers have to learn to write consciously (Byrne, 1988; Ellis, 1985; Halliday, 1989; Kress, 1984; Swan, 1985a, 1985b; Tribble, 1996). Research results suggest (Krashen, 1987, Kress, 1994; Ellis, 1995) that, especially in writing, near-native competence can be achieved through conscious, systematic learning, if comprehensible input is provided in low-anxiety teaching situations. Hedge (1988), Kress (1994) and Halliday (1989) emphasise that, because of the numerous differences between the spoken and written discourse, learning to write in a foreign language involves learning two systems, almost at the same time, which also necessitates providing special training in teaching writing for language teachers. Kress (1994) points out that the native child has the advantage of being a proficient speaker by the time s/he starts writing. In foreign language learning there is no such big time shift as text-level writing instruction in most teaching contexts starts around a post-elementary oral proficiency level of the student. However, this difference is not a strong hindering factor for all learners. Arndt's (1987) comparative study of the composing process in the mother tongue and the foreign language revealed that those whose writing skills are efficient and effective in the mother tongue are likely to have similar skills in the foreign language as well. Tribble (1996) also argues that the major difficulty for foreign learners is textual rather than discoursal as if they "... have already learnt how to write in their own language, then they will have acquired the essential interactive ability underlying discourse enactment and the ability to record it in text. The problem is how to textualize discourse in a different language (p.11)".

For the above mentioned need for systematic formal teaching and using relevant motivating and communicative tasks at the same time in developing writing skills, writing syllabuses should reflect Byrne's (1988) recommendations:

- awareness raising in the communicative value, the processes and difficulties of writing should take place
- the aims and objectives of the instruction should be stated
- motivating and relevant writing tasks need to be used
- methodologies of developing the necessary writing subskills (collecting ideas, planning, logical organisation, crafting, re-planning, re-writing, editing) should be applied
- skills integration needs to take place
- a consistent feedback and assessment system should be worked out

In his recent research on bilingual education Krashen (2001) comes to the conclusion that solid education in the mother tongue enhances the acquisition/learning process in the foreign language as well. His findings question the belief that the more English children hear and read, the faster they will acquire it. He claims this is not necessarily the case. When children are given a good education in their first language, they receive knowledge and literacy. Both the knowledge and the literacy they develop in their first language help English language development enormously. Krashen claims that the effect is indirect, but powerful: "The knowledge you learn using your first language makes what you hear and read in English much more comprehensible. This results in more language acquisition and more learning in general. The positive effects of background knowledge on language acquisition and on learning in general have been thoroughly documented, and the concept makes common sense."

These findings reveal that in learning to write in a foreign language the role of conscious learning has been overestimated. Both conscious and unconscious processes contribute to the development of the skill. Further research is needed to investigate to what extent conscious learning, unconscious exposure and good education in the mother tongue contribute to writing skills development.

The input and methods recommended in the training plan of the present thesis reflect the aim of enhancing the flow from the learnt store to the acquired store and the requirements of systematic formal teaching combined with enhancing the effect of spontaneous exposure.

3. The basic approach to teaching writing, similarly to the teaching of other skills, is the communicative approach.

The basic approach to foreign language teaching and teaching writing in a foreign language as well should be the communicative approach, as the methodologies emerging from it are the most effective in developing communicative competence (Ellis, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Brumfit, 1979; Littlewood, 2004; Swan, 1985a, 1985b). In teaching writing it involves familiarising students not only with the discoursal and textual demands of a certain type of writing but making them aware of the communicative function of writing. In order to be an efficient writer, the student needs to be aware of the situation, the function and the intended audience of the written communication. Tribble (1996), Hedge (1988), Byrne (1988), Kharma (1986) and Halliday (1989) emphasize that conscious and systematic vocabulary and text-building development work is essential. This does not mean that learning to write should be boring and monotonous. 'Crafting' skills can be reached through interesting tasks that involve motivating topics and interaction types.

Teachers should also be made aware that applying the communicative approach to teaching writing and using a great amount of controlled practice to master writing subskills at the same time is not a contradiction. Doing a lot of controlled practice (e.g. supplying discourse markers in a text, finding the order of jumbled-up paragraphs or expanding topic-sentences) does not violate the principles of communicative language teaching. Such activities are part of the route for learnt knowledge to penetrate acquired knowledge.

Methodologies used should incorporate wide exposure to appropriate models of written language, awareness raising, skills integration, a variety of techniques and practice forms, exposure to appropriate samples of language and relevant and motivating activities.

The successful combination of controlled and guided practice with relevant contexts and life-like motivating tasks are illustrated by Hillocks' (1986), Spacks' (1980) and Littlewood's (2003) task-based approaches, Raimes' (1983) skills integration procedures and the 'writing for real audiences' projects reported by Soh Bee-Lay and Soon Yee-Ping (1991) and Vincent (1990).

4. Enhancing motivation and providing low anxiety level are essential in writing instruction.

Without finding out what motivates the particular group and individuals a teacher teaches it is not possible to teach successfully (Dörnyei, 2001). The same applies to teaching writing. Language learning itself is motivating only for a very limited number of dedicated learners. For most learners language is only the 'carrier' of information, and the medium of communication does not involve intellectual challenge. What might catch learners' interest is the content/message the foreign language conveys. Naturally, what is said is more important than how it is said. In order to provide students with motivating input, specific tasks should be used that teach something relevant about the world (Rinvolucri, 1983, 1995; Swan, 1985b, Tribble, 1996; Chenoveth, 1987; Vincent, 1990; Soh Bee-Lay and Soon Yee-Ping, 1991; Long, 1992; Hillocks, 1986; Swales, 1986; Cotterall and Cohen, 2003). It is the teacher's responsibility to select and design tasks that are likely to raise students' interest. Maintaining students' motivation is especially difficult in teaching writing as writers have to learn to comply with a large set of rules and rather strict frameworks in the process of becoming successful writers. Using a syllabus that incorporates features of procedural and task-based syllabuses will enhance motivation as such syllabuses put special emphasis on relevant content (Nunan, 1988; Long, 1992; Hillocks, 1986; Spacks, 1988; Dyer, 1996; Littlewood, 2003).

The task-types offered in Chapter 4 and in the training plan of Chapter 8 of the present thesis might help writing instruction to become enjoyable and partly eliminate the reputation of writing as boring and tedious work.

The 'creative construction' model of language acquisition necessitates a low-anxiety environment. Providing stress-free atmosphere in the process of teaching writing is

illustrated by the methodologies of Krashen (1987); Randsell (1993); Silva *et al.*, (1994); Lonon Blanton 1987; Shin, 2003).

The methodologies advocated by the authors contribute to reducing anxiety as they involve:

- enhancing co-operation of students
- motivating, relevant tasks
- personal relevance of topic
- making aims, objectives and procedures clear
- transparent and consistent classroom procedures
- transparent and consistent evaluation
- individual treatment of students
- providing a feeling of success
- teacher's supportive and sympathetic attitude
- no insistence on early production
- opportunity of free writing (without the teacher's reading) to relax and unwind

5. The importance of personal involvement and student-centred learning should be acknowledged in the writing syllabus.

Research has shown that personal involvement and student-centred learning enhance the development of language competence (Halápi and Saunders, 2002; Harmer, 1991; Rinvolucri, 1983, 1995; Swan, 1985b, Nunan, 1988; Littlewood, 2003; Cotterall and Cohen, 2003). Personal interests and motivations used in the teaching-learning process have proved to be forceful facilitators of learning. Working with topics that are relevant to students or reveal the teacher's personal attitudes, ideas as well are strong motivating factors that teachers of writing should rely on.

The 'creative construction' model has warned that students' processing of the input varies in pace and mode. For this reason teachers need to take into consideration individual differences, the students' needs and different learning styles.

Swan (1985b) summarises the importance of personal involvement as follows: "Each individual in a class already possesses a vast private store of knowledge, opinions, and

experience; and each individual has an imagination which is capable of creating whole scenarios at a moment's notice [...] In many contemporary language courses, communication of this 'personal' kind seems to be seriously under-exploited" (p.84).

Personal involvement is well illustrated in Rinvolucri's (1983, 1995) personal written communication with his students and Lonon Blanton's (1987) journal writing activities.

Task-based approaches, which exploit personal interest and motivation and work towards a common goal, have proved to be successful facilitators of learning. The projects reported by Soh Bee-Lay and Soon Yee-Ping (1991) and Vincent (1990) have involved longer periods of communicating in writing with real audiences, carrying out problem-solving tasks at the same time.

The 'Teachers' beliefs and needs regarding their practice of teaching writing in English as a foreign language' research of Chapter 7 gathered and analysed data on how Hungarian teachers of English see their own confidence and training needs in teaching and testing text-level writing in the English lesson.

The most important findings of the descriptive data analysis of the needs and competence survey were the following:

- Teachers did not claim to be confident in teaching writing and their claimed competence was weaker than in teaching speaking, listening, reading, vocabulary and grammar. This finding necessitates launching training courses.
- Teachers claimed to have rather low confidence in teaching most task-types, especially *writing formal letters, arranging paragraphs into passages, writing up a story with a given beginning or ending, writing short notes and diary entries, arranging sentences into paragraphs and writing a text with the help of pictures and other prompts*. However, their self-report reflected higher confidence in teaching the task-types than in teaching the overall skill.
- Teachers themselves reported real need for in-service training in teaching writing; teachers' attitude was very favourable towards the course and the proposed components, they showed high motivation. The positive expectations and the motivation will enhance the effectiveness of the course.

- Most teachers asked were aware of the importance of writing for real-life purposes, which reinforces the communicative value of teaching writing.
- The majority of the respondents did not know how to encourage real-life writing activities of their students.
- The coursebook and the teachers' own ideas and materials proved to be the most important factors in teachers' writing syllabus.
- Teachers need help in teaching using computers and the Internet in teaching writing.
- Teachers need help in finding and evaluating the available course materials.
- Teachers need practice in developing their own writing skills as well.

Based on the findings of the variance and correlation analysis the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Training more confident and competent teachers will enhance the use of communicative real-life writing activities in the foreign language classroom.
- The need for further training in teaching writing does not depend on the claimed confidence in teaching writing.
- Teachers' confidence level in teaching writing does not depend on the length of their experience.
- Teachers who claim higher confidence in teaching writing tend to teach older students (14-18).
- Teachers who claim higher confidence in teaching writing tend to teach at higher levels.
- Teachers in prestigious schools have no higher confidence in teaching writing than teachers in average schools.
- Teachers in prestigious schools are more likely to encourage real-life writing activities.
- Teachers at average schools are more likely to teach at pre-intermediate level.
- Teachers teaching at higher levels tend to encourage real-life writing activities.
- The longer the teacher's experience the more confidence s/he shows in teaching grammar.
- The higher the teacher's confidence in teaching writing the more they take the students' needs and wishes into consideration.

- Those with low confidence in teaching writing demonstrate low confidence in teaching almost all task-types. Successful development of teaching the subskills will result in higher confidence in and more positive attitude to teaching writing.
- Boosting confidence in one skill will result is growing confidence in teaching the other skills as well; awareness raising in skills integration is important as confidence in one skill raises confidence in teaching the others as well. It also facilitates learning as it is unnatural and uncommunicative to deal with one skill only.

The training course syllabus plan of the present thesis intended to contribute to the improvement of teaching writing skills in English to practising teachers in Hungary by incorporating the theories related to learning and teaching writing, the findings of the empirical research on the present state of language teaching in Hungary, the content and requirements of the new school-leaving examination and the findings of the teachers' competence and needs analysis research. The training course also offers an excellent opportunity for future research through comparing future learning outcomes with the current baseline data within this thesis, where teachers' perceptions and beliefs in their levels of confidence and competence in teaching English writing have been analysed.

The in-service training course plan of the present thesis displays features of innovativeness that are unique in the Hungarian secondary and higher education system. The uniqueness originates from the complex planning and thorough background research, which has taken into consideration a wide variety of features necessary for substantial improvement in teachers' skills to teach text-level writing and in students' skills to express themselves in writing. The plan presented has incorporated research in applied linguistics into teaching writing, the results of Hungarian empirical research into teaching writing and student performances, the need to enhance the use of communicative methodologies in teaching writing, teachers' need for gaining confidence in teaching writing, for improving their own writing skills, for improving weak areas in teaching writing and their need for developing skills to prepare students for the new Matura examination.

9.3 Final reflections and recommendations

The major achievement of the present thesis might be that it has made an attempt for the first time to give a comprehensive picture of teaching EFL writing in Hungary and to explore teachers' strengths, weaknesses and needs in the area.

The limitations of the investigation did not make it possible to assess the effectiveness of the recommended ways of improvement in teaching and testing writing. Further research is needed (after the first year of the training course) to explore to what extent the course has met teachers' needs and to what extent it has contributed to the improvement of teachers' skills in the area. The other most important question, which is also beyond the scope of the present investigation, is the impact of the communicative writing tasks and the assessment system of the new Matura examination on teachers' classroom practices and students' writing competence. Such intriguing research will be possible to carry out after the first three-four years of the new examination; after the new practice has penetrated the whole educational system and the first generation of students has been trained towards the new requirements.

In the past fifteen years, as a result of an urgent need for competent foreign language users, there has been high emphasis on developing speaking skills in foreign language teaching in Hungary. At the same time there has not been measures taken to improve the other important productive language skill: writing. The present research has revealed the importance of the development of the teaching of writing in English as a productive communicative skill in the Hungarian public education. The entire research was geared up towards finding ways to help teachers to improve their skills and confidence in teaching writing in English, and ultimately it will result in better student performance as measured in the new examination system.

The research uncovered a variety of reasons and processes that contributed to the controversial results of the educational reform. In spite of the hindering effects, the main aims of the educational change, initiated by the government and half-heartedly accepted by the teachers, have been reached. An up-to-date national curriculum, and a modern, standardised and comparable school-leaving examination system, based on the

principles of communicative language teaching and testing have been designed and launched.

The present situation of the new school-leaving examination shows the similar weaknesses that characterised the whole period of examination development. In an ideal world a central research institute would bring all the interested parties and the best educational researchers together to analyse the past papers of the examination (May and November 2005) in order to inform the public about student performance, to provide evidence of the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments and to further improve these features. Such a research culture would ensure a sustainable and highly professional examination system. Instead of this ideal situation, the Hungarian Examination Centre works with a small team of professionals on the production of the tests with poor resources and a low budget. The activities of the Examination Centre do not include research at all; the centre is commissioned by the Ministry of Education to carry out the organisational and logistical activities and produce the papers for each examination period. Another institution of the Ministry of Education, the Institute of Public Education, after long delay, was commissioned to carry out research (statistical information, reliability, post-test reports) related to the "live" examinations. The work is proceeding very slowly because the two institutions see each other as competitors; and unclear profiles, conflicting interests and professional jealousy hinder meaningful work. This is the reason why no post-test reports have been published yet.

In the near future, the decision-makers will have to take measures to alleviate such problems, and make sure that centralised research is carried out in the following areas: comparison of the Hungarian Matura examination with similar summative examinations in Europe; single marker/double marker reliability studies; item analysis and test reliability; improving test administration, standardisation and marking procedures; comparison of achievement levels over time; possibilities of simplifying the test without affecting reliability and validity; comparing student performance with that of the neighbouring countries; the washback effect of the examination on teachers' classroom practices. In order to evaluate the effect of the examination on the quality of teaching, it would also be important to compare student performance levels in a few years' time with the pre-examination performance levels analysed and recorded in the Baseline Study.

Single marker/double marker reliability and trained/untrained marker reliability studies would be the most urgent research areas in the present state of the examination reform. The results of such studies might force the educational government to introduce double marking at least at the higher-level examination, and to introduce central marking by trained markers at the lower-level examination as well.

The above mentioned research topics are large-scale research areas, which have to be carried out by large research teams. For this reason it is strongly recommended that such research be carried out within one central research institution.

Other important smaller-scale research related to the new Matura examination could be carried out by professional teams at universities as joint projects of educational researchers and practising teachers: comparing the Matura results with classroom performance; comparing the Matura results with teachers' judgement of students' competence; comparing subskills developed by the most frequent course materials with the Matura examination specifications. The educational government should realise again that financing such research is in the best interest of the country. Such research could highly contribute to developing further the teaching and testing of foreign languages in Hungary.

The evaluation of the training course drawn up in Chapter 8 and the results of the 'Teachers' beliefs and needs regarding their practice of teaching writing in English as a foreign language' research also open up important research opportunities. The areas investigated in the research regarding teachers' self-claimed competence in teaching writing in general and the various writing subskills should be supplemented by research into teachers' classroom practices by using observation techniques. The data gained through observation could be compared to the survey results of the present research, and a more reliable conclusion could be drawn regarding the present situation in teaching writing in Hungary. The most important observation areas would be: How teachers' self-claimed confidence in teaching the different writing task-types relate to the evidence of their competence in teaching these task-types in the observed classes; how teachers' perceived usefulness level of the course components relate to their competence in dealing with those particular areas in their classrooms; and how the

survey results regarding the self-claimed evidence of dealing with students' real-life writing activities correlate with their classroom practice.

Research into the effectiveness of the proposed training course will be more difficult to conduct as a result of objective difficulties. Hindering factors outside the researcher's competence do not make it possible to run the training course as planned. As a result of the new higher education law in Hungary major restructuring of the higher education system is taking place and the new BA/MA/MEd system comes into effect in September 2006. All the present teacher training courses are running out, and no new ones will be introduced before the new MA/Ed programmes start in 2009. For this reason within the Faculty of Arts (or the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, depending which faculty will be given the right to run MEd programmes) the proposed training programme will be possible to run only with considerable delay. It is highly recommended that the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology run MEd programmes together with the language pedagogy experts of the Faculty of Arts. Such a decision would confirm that the management of Hungary's oldest, biggest and most prestigious university intends to run teacher training programmes by the units of the university where real expertise has been accumulated during the past 15 years.

For the reasons listed above full delivery of the programme was not possible, however, some information is emerging based on a modified version of the programme. As a Matura examination design team member the author of the present research had the opportunity to design a training course for practising teachers who intended to become markers and assessors of the higher-level writing paper and oral examination. According to a Ministry of Education decree only those who complete the course can be invited as examiners of the higher-level examination. The training course was first run for 40 teachers from all over Hungary with previous in-service teaching experience. These teachers became examiner trainers working for the regional pedagogical institutes. They have been running the course for two years. The 45-hour course involves familiarisation with the structure of the examination, the specifications for all the test components and marker and assessor training. Writing is only one component of the course with 10 allocated hours. The modified training programme reflects the principles of the programme defined in Chapter 8; however, it was possible to keep only the most important course components. As the aim of the examiner training for the

Writing Test was to enhance reliable marking, marking training was the most important training component. The other vital aims the training design team intended to keep within the programme was raising teachers' awareness of developing both as teachers of writing and writers; raising teachers' awareness of teaching writing as a communicative activity and developing the ability of reflection on teachers' own practice. For this reason the training programme retained the following components:

- the characteristics of written communication; the communicative approach to teaching writing; the writing subskills (1 hour)
- why writing is difficult; the communicative task (1 hour)
- enhancing motivation; writing for real audiences; integrating skills (1 hour)
- Testing writing; using analytic marking scales; the requirements of the Matura examination (2 hours)
- Marker training (5 hours)

It can be clearly seen that the programme outlined above cannot include numerous components that a teacher needing training in teaching writing should receive. However, the programme can function as a starting point in the process of disseminating good practice in teaching text-level writing in English. Inevitably, further decisions have to be made at ministry and university management level to support in-service training courses in the area. The full run of the training programme would be vital for another reason as well. The teachers who do not get marker and assessor training for the higher-level examination have the right to be examiners at the lower-level examination. Evidently, untrained teachers cannot use even the most professionally designed marking scales. Consequently, untrained examiners involve a serious hazard to the reliability of the lower-level examination. The examination design team believe that without voicing these worries there will not be a change in policy, for this reason they have continuously been communicating these concerns to the Ministry of Education.

If the opportunity emerges to run the full programme in the near future, it will be possible for research teams to conduct research in the field of comparing teachers' pre-training and post-training practices in text-level writing, and evaluate the effectiveness of the course. If the confusion and chaos of the reorganisation quiets down at ELTE, possibly by involving other institutions and EU funding, such research will be viable.

The present research highlights the difficulty of fitting academic research into academic policy framework. It is a good example of the fundamental conflict between political decisions and the real needs of the participants. The research leading to the design of the training programme started out by first formulating the need for evidence about teaching writing as perceived by teachers. The research started in a climate when the educational government was in the middle of a curricular and examination reform, which could have provided support for accompanying training courses. Unfortunately, it was not calculated that the higher education reform and the internal fights of university faculties might become hindering factors for the trial run of the planned training course. However, the aim of the research has been reached; the training programme, incorporating baseline data, needs analysis data and applied research results has been designed, and can run any time in the future.

All in all, a lot of positive changes have taken place in the past few years in Hungary, and the Matura examination is on track. As the declared aim of each government is to make foreign language teaching more effective in Hungary, the politicians and educational policy makers will have to make sure that basic research be conducted in investigating the washback effect of the new Matura examination. Furthermore, teachers in the past two-three years have had more incentive to participate in in-service training; consequently, their professional development and growing interest and support will also contribute to positive changes in English language teaching.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Approaches to language teaching (based on Diane Larsen-Freeman, 1986)

The Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar Translation method develops students' appreciation of the target languages' literature. Literary language is seen as superior to spoken language. Reading and writing are the primary skills; speaking, listening and pronunciations are not emphasised. Students read passages and answer comprehension questions. The method also involves translation literary passages from one language into the other and memorising grammar rules. Vocabulary learning involves memorising the native-language equivalent of target language vocabulary. The teacher is an authority figure, has high control. There is extensive error correction.

The Direct Method

The Direct method puts emphasis on perceiving the meaning directly through the target language as no translation is allowed. The focus is on oral communication, reading and writing are based on oral activities. Students speak a lot in the target language in natural situations. Acting, pantomime and visual aids are used to clarify vocabulary. Grammar is learned inductively. The teacher directs the activities but the teacher and students are partners in the learning process. Self-correction is encouraged.

The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual Method is based on the behaviourist view that we learn the language through internalising a set of language habits. The learner repeats language patterns until able to produce them actively. The teacher directs and controls students' language production. Vocabulary and structures are presented in dialogues, which are learned through drills. All skills are taught, though language structures, listening and speaking are emphasised. Native language is not used. There is heavy error correction by the teacher. Spontaneous utterences are not encouraged as the aim is to use pre-set structures and vocabulary correctly. There is high emphasis on pronunciation with language lab work.

The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach emphasises communicative competence over linguistic competence, functions over forms. Students work with authentic materials in pairs or small groups on communicative tasks. The tasks involve an information or opinion gap. Students negotiate meaning and have a choice of what to say. They receive feedback from the listener and the teacher, which verifies it the communicative purpose has been achieved. The teacher functions as facilitator, students interact a lot with each other. Motivation, co-operation, creativity are encouraged. All skills are taught. Usually there is no use of the native language. Errors are considered as natural part of the language learning process. Successful communication is the most important aim.

Suggestopedia

The method, developed by Lozanov, helps learners eliminate stress from learning. The learning environment is peaceful and relaxed. Students choose a new identity in the target language. Texts with their translations into the mother tongue are presented to the accompaniment of music. Students listen and relax, later activate knowledge through dramatisation and games. Vocabulary, communicative use and explicit grammar are in focus. Native language is used for clarification. Errors are not corrected; correction comes from the model the teacher provides.

Community Language Learning

The method advocates eliminating fear from the learning process. Teachers help students feel secure and mobilise their positive energy for learning. The teacher acts as counselor, supporting students with mastering the language. Both students and the teacher make decisions. Co-operation is encouraged. Syllabus is determined by students. Understanding and speaking get more emphasis than writing and reading. Students have conversations in the mother tongue, these are translated into the target language. The native language enhances the feeling of security, the self-designed syllabus enhances motivation. The target language is used more when students reach higher competence.

Appendix 2
Sample Writing Paper, Lower level

PRÓBAÉRETTSÉGI • 2004. május

ANGOL NYELV

KÖZÉPSZINT

Íráskészség
60 perc

ORSZÁGOS KOZOKTATÁSI ÉRTÉKELÉSI ÉS VIZSGAKÖZPONT

Országos Közoktatási Intézet
National Institute of Public Education

TASK A

You are studying English at a summer course in Lancaster. Tonight you would like to go out but you don't want to miss two television programmes either. You decide to ask your roommate, Carla, to make a video recording of the programme which you have selected from What's On, the TV magazine.

This is tonight's programme on BBC1:

7:00 pm
Friends
Chandler and Monica's relationship becomes public.

7:30 pm
Top of the Pops
The week's chart toppers.

8:00 pm
Film
Fearless (Peter Weir, 1993)
A man walks unhurt from a plane crash and comes to believe the experience has made him immortal.

10:00 pm
BBC News
National and international news from the BBC, followed by Weather.

10:25 pm
The Life of Mammals
David Attenborough puts meat eaters under the microscope.

Choose two programmes which you would like to see and write a note of about 50 words to Carla in which you ask her to record them for you.

Answer the following questions:

- Where are you going tonight?
- What time are you going to be back?
- Why are you interested in the programme?

Begin your note like this:

Hi, Carla,

TASK B

You have received an e-mail from an English friend, Peter, who intends to spend two days in Hungary with his parents on their way to Croatia. They only have time to visit Budapest and one place in the country. He wants your advice about where to go.

Reply to Peter and recommend a place outside Budapest, somewhere in the country.

Write an e-mail of 120-150 words including the following points:

- Where the place is
- Description of the place
- Accommodation, food, possible activities
- Why you think they will like it

Begin your e-mail like this:

Dear Peter,

Sample Writing Paper, Higher level

PRÓBAÉRETTSÉGI • 2004. május

ANGOL NYELV

EMELT SZINT

Íráskészség
90 perc

OKÉV
ORSZÁGOS KÖZOKTATÁSI ÉRTÉKELÉSI ÉS VIZSGAKÖZPONT

OKI
Országos Közoktatási Intézet
National Institute of Public Education

TASK A

You are studying in England and have received the following advertisement enclosed in a letter from your friend, Chris:

Activity holidays

Spring weekend breaks in the quiet, unspoilt Lake District

Spend your weekend with our fully qualified instructors teaching you how to climb or go sailing and swimming in the lakes.

Accommodation for four in comfortable wood cabins, situated in the forest.

Chris wants you to go with him and two other friends. You would like to know more about the holiday before you decide whether to accept the invitation and write to him to enquire about the following things:

- Food
- Heating
- Special equipment

Write a letter of 150-200 words to Chris. Do not include any dates or postal addresses.

Begin your letter like this:

Dear Chris,

TASK B

You are a regular reader of the journal Young Citizens. Each month it gives a story and readers are invited to give their opinion.

This is last month's story:

> Andrew has got behind with his school work. He has two essays to hand in before Friday. If he does not, he will not get good grades. He has to get good grades or he will not get a place at college next year on the course he wants. A friend of his offers to lend him his work so that Andrew can copy it. Andrew knows he is bright enough to go to college, if only he can get the right grades.
>
> Andrew wonders whether he should cheat or not. What do you think he should do?

Write an article of about 200 words in which you give your opinion. Include the following points:

- What do you think about cheating at school work in general?
- If Andrew cheats and passes his exam, he might get a place at college. Is it fair?
- What do you think of Andrew's friend offering his work?
- Could cheating ever be justified?

This is the title of your article:

To cheat or not to cheat?

Sample Use of English Paper, Lower level

PRÓBAÉRETTSÉGI • 2004. május

ANGOL NYELV

KÖZÉPSZINT

Nyelvhelyesség
30 perc

ORSZÁGOS KOZOKTATÁSI ÉRTÉKELÉSI ÉS VIZSGAKÖZPONT

Országos Közoktatási Intézet
National Institute of Public Education

TASK 1

- **Rewrite each sentence, using the given beginnings and endings as shown, so that the meaning stays the same.**
- **There is an example (0) at the beginning.**

0. It is interesting for me to play computer games.

   I'm ..... *interested in playing*..... computer games.

1. "Do they usually take the 5.30 train?" Frank asked.

   Frank asked ..... the 5.30 train.

2. Dave has taught his children how to use the microwave oven.

   Dave's children ..... how to use the

   microwave oven.

3. There isn't enough petrol in the tank to get as far as Eger.

   There's too ..... to get as far as Eger.

4. Nobody wrote a better paper than you.

   You wrote ..... paper.

5. The last time I saw a dentist was in 2001.

   I ..... since 2001.

6. I'm sure Laura is in the computer room right now.

   Laura must ..... right now.

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	Max	Elért
						6	

TASK 2

- **You are going to read a part of a newspaper article about chocolate. Some words are missing from the text.**
- **Your task is to write the missing words on the dotted lines (1-10) after the text.**
- **Use only one word in each gap.**
- **There is an example (0) at the beginning.**

CHOCOHOLICS GET READY FOR EASTER

It seems we just can't get enough chocolate. In _____ **(0)** United Kingdom alone one person eats a yearly total of around nine kilograms. And the great news _____ **(7)** - it's good for us!

Good quality chocolate provides _____ **(8)** quick source of energy and contains useful amounts of protein and iron, _____ **(9)** well as the stimulants theobromine and a little caffeine.

Easter eggs account for 8% _____ **(10)** all chocolate sales today.

Every year more than 80 million boxed chocolate-shell eggs _____ **(11)** sold, with Cadbury's Creme Eggs easily the _____ **(12)** popular choice; the production is 300 million each year. If these _____ **(13)** put on top of each other, they would be ten times higher than Mount Everest.

The British love affair with chocolate began in London in 1657, _____ **(14)** a Frenchman opened the country's first chocolate house in Bishopsgate Street, advertising "this excellent West India drink". It was very expensive and Samuel Pepys, the famous English diary writer, drank chocolate _____ **(15)** the first time in 1662. _____ **(16)** is obvious that he enjoyed it, because his famous diary mentions more visits to chocolate houses and he writes several times of "your morning cup of chocolate".

0. ..... *the* .....

7. .....

8. .....

9. .....

10. .....

11. .....

12. .....

13. .....

14. .....

15. .....

16. .....

7.	8.	8.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	Max	Elért
										10	

TASK 3

- **You are going to read a story about a bad driver. Some words are missing from the text.**
- **Your task is to choose the most appropriate word from the list (A-L) for each gap (1-10) in the text. Write the letter of the appropriate word in the white boxes below.**
- **There is one extra word that you do not need to use.**
- **There is one example (0) at the beginning.**

THE WORST DRIVER

The world record for the most traffic offences in the shortest period of time is held by a man from Frisco in Texas, who achieved this feat in the first twenty minutes of car ownership.

Having hitch-hiked to the _____ **(0)** city of McKinney on 15 October 1966, he bought an old Ford and drove out of the used-car showroom at 3.50 p.m.

At 3.54 he collided with a green Chevrolet driven by a _____ **(17)** woman, Mrs Wilma Bailey, at the _____ **(18)** of Baker and Heard Street.

One minute later he collided _____ **(19)** 90 feet south of Virginia Street with _____ **(20)** Chevrolet, driven by Miss Sally Whitsel.

Feeling more _____ **(21)** now in his new vehicle, he next drove round the courthouse one-way system in the wrong _____ **(22)**. Forty-six feet later he hit a brand new Ford. It was still _____ **(23)** 3.58.

He continued this way until 4.15 p.m., when he was in deep _____ **(24)** with a police officer, after he hit a Ford Mustang in Louisiana Street.

In the space of just twenty minutes he had received ten traffic tickets, _____ **(25)** six accidents, hit four cars without stopping and driven on the wrong side of the road four _____ **(26)**.

When questioned, this determined motorist, who had not driven for ten years, said: 'They don't drive like they used to.'

A)	again	**E)**	confident	**I)**	local
B)	another	**F)**	corner	**J)**	nearby
C)	caught	**G)**	conversation	**K)**	only
D)	caused	**H)**	direction	**K)**	times

0.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
j										

17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	Max	Elért
										10	

Sample Use of English Task, Higher level

PRÓBAÉRETTSÉGI • 2004. május

ANGOL NYELV

EMELT SZINT

Nyelvhelyesség
50 perc

OKÉV
ORSZÁGOS KÖZOKTATÁSI ÉRTÉKELÉSI ÉS VIZSGAKÖZPONT

OKI
Országos Közoktatási Intézet
National Institute of Public Education

TASK 1

- **You are going to read an article about weddings in two different countries. Some words are missing from the text.**
- **Choose the most appropriate answer from the options (A-D) for each gap (1-12) in the text.**
- **Write the letter of the appropriate answer in the white boxes below.**
- **There is one example (0) at the beginning.**

DO YOU TAKE THIS MAN?

Kenya

For the Masai people the wedding is a great feast for the entire village. Festivities start _____ **(0)** dawn, when the bride - here, fourteen-year-old Yankiki, concealed by fabric and beads - _____ **(1)** the groom and her future brother-in-law in a slow procession from her home to the groom's village. She _____ **(2)** keep her eyes forward and take one step every two seconds, remaining silent as she meditates on her new _____ **(3)**. Along the route, her friends try to _____ **(4)** her to look to the side, and so cancel the wedding. After a five-hour walk, her outer clothes _____ **(5)** removed, and she's renamed by her new village. _____ **(6)** she walks into her new hut, she officially becomes a wife.

Italy

At her extravagant wedding in Pompeii, bride Maria Rosaria Lembo's dress weighed approximately 218 kg. But her dress's train, the long part of her dress drawn along behind her, is _____ **(7)** the longest in history. _____ **(8)** *The Guinness Book of World Records*, the longest train measured 210 metres and _____ **(9)** carried by 186 bridesmaids and pageboys. In Italian _____ **(10)**, Sunday weddings are the luckiest. Celebrations begin with morning mass, _____ **(11)** by dancing and feasting - up to fourteen courses may be served - into the early hours. The bride carries a satin bag _____ **(12)** she can collect the gifts of money presented to her by guests. And Italians are in it for the long term - the divorce rate is just twelve per cent, compared to the UK's 53 per cent.

0)	**A)** by	**B)** at	**C)** in	**D)** up
1)	**A)** links	**B)** arrives	**C)** finds	**D)** joins
2)	**A)** can	**B)** must	**C)** mustn't	**D)** needs
3)	**A)** area	**B)** field	**C)** role	**D)** job
4)	**A)** punish	**B)** permit	**C)** persuade	**D)** prefer
5)	**A)** have	**B)** will	**C)** have been	**D)** are
6)	**A)** As	**B)** So	**C)** During	**D)** Like
7)	**A)** all	**B)** quite	**C)** far	**D)** not
8)	**A)** According to	**B)** Due to	**C)** Apart from	**D)** In spite of
9)	**A)** were	**B)** would be	**C)** has been	**D)** was
10)	**A)** custom	**B)** habit	**C)** tradition	**D)** law
11)	**A)** followed	**B)** created	**C)** continued	**D)** presented
12)	**A)** in order to	**B)** so	**C)** while	**D)** as

0.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
B												

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	Max	Elért	Elért
												12		

TASK 2

- **You are going to read a newspaper article about musicians' brains. Some words are missing from the text.**
- **Write the missing words on the lines (1-7) after the text.**
- **Use only one word in each gap.**
- **There is one example (0) at the beginning.**

MUSICIANS HAVE BIGGER BRAINS

Musicians aren't just talented - they actually have bigger brains than other people, says The Times. Scientists _____ **(0)** discovered that the brains of musicians contain more 'grey matter' than those of people _____ **(13)** don't play a musical instrument. A research study _____ **(14)** out at the University of Heidelberg revealed that musicians' brains contained 130% _____ **(15)** nerve cells in their *auditory cortex*, a part of the brain linked to hearing, than the brains of non-musicians. Furthermore, the level of brain activity in professional musicians _____ **(16)** shown to be 102% higher than normal, while the brains of amateur musicians ____ **(17)** 37% more activethan average. What the study could not prove, ____ **(18),** was whether such differences are _____ **(19)** to genetics or to the effect of music on the brain. Whatever the reason, it seems that musicians have higher brain activity than ordinary people.

0. *have*

13.....

14.....

15.....

16.....

17.....

18.....

19.....

13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	Max	Elért
							7	

TASK 3

- **You are going to read an article about what Dan, 26, says about sharing housework. Some words are missing from the text.**
- **Use the words in brackets to form the words that fit in the gaps (1-10).**
- **Then write the appropriate form of these words on the lines below.**
- **There might be cases when you do not have to change the word in brackets.**
- **Write only one word in each space.**
- **There is an example (0) at the beginning.**

HE MISSES MUM'S MAGIC LAUNDRY BASKET

'When Lydia and I bought our house, we were really excited. It wasn't until we moved in that I ____ **(0)** that little jobs, like laundry, were a big part of ____ **(20)** together, too. At home, I'd stick my dirty clothes in a magic basket and they'd reappear clean. But, even though my mum did most of the housework, I always knew Lydia and I would share.

'We both have ____ **(21)** and weaknesses. I deal with the bills because I'm a financial ____ **(22).** I like ____ **(23)**, and I also tidy up most evenings because I get home from work first. Admittedly, I leave towels lying around, but she eats raisins out of the cereal box and drops them on the floor!

'Decorating has been the main source of ____ **(24).** Lydia was so determined to paint the bedroom and lounge pink, I buckled under the ____ **(25).** We normally compromise, but I've developed a tactic for getting what I want: I'll suggest something and, if she ____ **(26)**, I sigh and go quiet for weeks. ____ **(27)** , she'll come round to my way of thinking, but she'll present it as her idea so she feels more in control.

'That's what happened when she wanted a fancy mirror in the lounge and I wanted a fan. After three weeks of me ____ **(28)** the issue, she suggested a fan. I did the same with the bathroom. I wanted mosaics, she wanted flowery tiles. ____ **(29),** I won. I think the pink bedroom is enough of a compromise.'

0. ..... *have* .....

20. .....

21. .....

22. .....

23. .....

24. .....

25. .....

26. .....

27. .....

28. .....

29. .....

20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	Max	Elért
										10	

TASK 4

- **You are going to read an article about a great actress. In most lines there is one unnecessary word. It is either grammatically incorrect or does not fit in with the sense of the text.**
- **Read the text and then copy the unnecessary word in the space provided after each line.**
- **Some lines are correct. Indicate these lines with a tick (✓).**
- **The task begins with two examples (0).**

LIFE STORIES

0) Katherine Hepburn broke all Hollywood rules, yet still became ……✓……

0) one of the most biggest stars of its golden era. ……*most*……

30) As the clock struck 8 pm on 30 June in this year, the crowd that ……

31) had been gathered along the Great White Way in New York's ……

32) Broadway collectively hushed themselves to silence. The ……

33) lights on the in front of the Shubert Theater had suddenly, ……

34) dramatically dimmed in tribute to the actress Katherine Hepburn, ……

35) who had died all the day before at the grand old age of 96. ……

36) It was Broadway's way of saying farewell to one of the ever ……

37) greats of Hollywood's golden era, an actress who has won the first ……

38) of her four Oscars in 1933 and who always went on to become one ……

39) of the most influential actors of the very century. ……

40) But if it struck some onlookers as though a far too modest tribute ……

41) to such a legend, the actress herself would probably have been ……

42) pleased with the modest display. She often said she didn't ……

43) want to have had any kind of public memorial, not even a funeral. ……

30.	31.	32.	33.	34.	35.	36.	37.	38.	39.	40.	41.	42.	43.	Max	Elért
														14	

Appendix 3

Sample Paper
Old-type Matura examination

OKTATÁSI MINISZTÉRIUM

T 22 A

GIMNÁZIUM
2004. május

Írásbeli érettségi tétel
a n g o l nyelvből
az alap- és fakultatív tanterv szerint végzett vizsgázók számára
A feladat

---

1. Egészítse ki a szöveget! Egy helyre csak egy szót írhat.

A Famous Film Director

In 1994 he won the most important film prize, the Oscar, for *Schindler's List*. He is one of the _____ successful film directors. His name is Steven Spielberg.

How _____ he become such a famous director? Well, he has always _____ interested in films. When he was _____ little boy, his father showed him how _____ use a camera. When he was twelve, he got _____ own camera and started to film things like model train crashes, stories about monsters, and horrible murders. His three young sisters always played the victims. Making films was his great hobby – much more fascinating for him _____ school. It was still his hobby _____ he was an adult. Since then he _____ spent a lot of time and more and more money on the production of his own films.

The secret of Spielberg's success is that the stories in many _____ his films somehow look as if they could happen to ordinary people like you and me.

10 pont

2. Fejezze be a megkezdett mondatokat úgy, hogy jelentésük minél jobban megegyezzen az előző mondat jelentésével!

You should put on your jacket if you go out.
You shouldn't go out _____ .
I want to go out tonight, but I have too much homework.
If I didn't _____ .
"Does the cottage need redecoration?" asked the real estate agent.
The real estate agent asked _____ .
There are some lovely places to visit in London; one of them is Covent Garden.
Covent Garden is one of _____ .

8 pont

3. Egészítse ki a szöveget a megadott szavakkal! A szavak a mondatba illő alakjukban állnak. Egy szó felesleges.

batteries, equipment, household, plants, pollute, power, recycle, reduce, save, warming

Look After This Planet

Even the simplest everyday activities can make a real difference to the environment. Here are some suggestions:

Turn off your _____ like televisions and stereos when you aren't using them. That little red standby light means they're still using _____ – and that means a contribution to global _____.

To _____ water you should turn off the tap when you are brushing your teeth, and you can collect the water used to wash fruit and vegetables to water your _____.

Ask your local authority if they have a disposal facility for used _____ and other types of dangerous _____ waste, or if they offer a collection service so you can _____ your paper, glass, plastics and other waste. In any case, you should always use rechargeable batteries.

And finally, you can help _____ the world's rubbish dumps if you don't use 'throw away' products like paper plates and serviettes, plastic knives, forks and cups.

9 pont

4. Alkosson helyes mondatokat az összekevert szavakból! A mondatok első szavát megadtuk. A szavak a mondatba illő alakjukban állnak. Minden szót használjon fel!

- to / we / on / week / trip / the / went / a / mountains / ~~last~~

Last _____.

- high / was / to / us / ~~it~~ / climb / for / rocks / difficult / the

It _____.

- world / tourists / were / of / ~~there~~ / the / from / all / lots / over

There _____.

- top / the / a / at / view / wonderful / have / ~~did~~ / you

Did _____?

8 pont

5. Olvassa el figyelmesen, hogyan nyilatkoznak a szakemberek az influenzáról és annak gyógymódjáról, és írja a megfelelő betűjelet (**A, B, C, D**) a kérdések után!

A) Andrew Hexheimer, pharmacologist

The trouble with many flu products is that they have something for several symptoms. As a result, people who don't have those symptoms – for example, aches and pains and they only have a sore throat – are much more likely to get side effects.

B) Joe Collier, professor

You should stay indoors, keep warm and stop spreading the virus. That is what I did last week when I had flu and it worked just fine. As for remedies, I wouldn't waste money on all these fancy treatments. A 32-capsule packet of aspirin costs about 90p, and that is all you need. Take those. Forget about anything else. You are just throwing away hard-earned cash.

C) Claire Gillen, company pharmacist

There has been a significant increase in the sale of cold and flu products, but our remedies are intended merely to treat symptoms. They don't cure colds. There are certainly cases when a cheap bottle of aspirin would be just as effective. Indeed, we even recommend steam inhalation as well as bed rest and fluids.

D) Alan Hay, doctor

We are not getting the right medicines. A bottle of inexpensive painkillers should do the trick. However, I think if you choose one of the more expensive treatments, which typically cost between £2 and £4 for a packet of between 12 and 20 capsules, you are not using logic. But if someone thinks they feel better after taking these treatments, then I would say: Why not?

Which person says that

- spending a lot on flu products is illogical? _____
- he/she has recently had a flu attack? _____
- people have been spending more on flu products? _____
- buying expensive flu products is a waste of money? _____
- most flu products contain ingredients for more than one symptom? _____
- you should drink more when you have flu? _____
- you shouldn't make others ill? _____
- cold and flu products do not cure people? _____
- flu products can cause problems for the patient? _____

9 pont

6. Fejtse ki a véleményét röviden a szituáció alapján!

The English magazine for learners of English *Your Opinion* asked students all over the world to tell them what they think about the following statement:
'Teenagers should have certain duties at home.' What do you think?

Say whether you agree or disagree with this statement and why. Write about three sentences (about 30 words).

6 pont

7. Olvassa el a szituációt, és írja meg a levelet! Írjon kb. öt mondatot (kb. 50 szót)!

You want to read in English. You decide to send your English friend a short letter or e-mail to ask for some advice. Write about

- what you usually read
- how well you read in English

Ask

- what he/she would recommend reading
- how to get it

Dear

10 pont

A vizsgázó neve: _____ Pontszáma: _____

OKTATÁSI MINISZTÉRIUM

T 22 B

GIMNÁZIUM
2004. május

Írásbeli érettségi tétel
a n g o l nyelvből
az alap- és fakultatív tanterv szerint végzett vizsgázók számára
B feladat

Fordítsa az alábbi szöveget magyarra!

Delhi Calling

It is 6.30 pm in an office in Delhi. A group of young Indians are talking on the phone. Their customers, however, are a long way away, in a place where it is still lunchtime and probably cold.

The customers are in Britain and have rung a number in the United Kingdom to check their mobile phone bills or to ask about a new product. Most of them do not know that they are talking to an Indian call centre*, thousands of kilometres away. This is not surprising, as the staff do a 20-hour course in British culture. They watch videos of British soap operas to get used to regional accents. They learn about Yorkshire pudding, and if a caller says something about David Beckham or the Queen, the Indian staff are sure to have an answer.

"They get a two-hour seminar on the royal family," says the manager. "We download* the British newspapers every morning from the Internet to see what our customers are reading. And we also explain about the weather, because British people refer to the subject so often. It is a science," he adds proudly.

So much so that Britain's 3,500 call centres are worried that their jobs will disappear completely. A report last month said that Indian call centres were better than British centres. They were cheaper and they had better technology and smarter staff.

---

call centre - telefonközpont
download – letölt (Internetről)

Appendix 4

Marking Instructions for the Writing Test
Lower level (33 points)
(translated from Hungarian by the author)

Task A (level A2)

I. Summary of criteria

Criteria	Points
Task completion and appropriate length	5 points
Comprehensibility	5 points
Layout	1 points
TOTAL	11 points

If the candidate reaches zero score in any criterion, his/her TOTAL score is also zero.

II. Content of criteria:

- **Task completion and appropriate length**
  This criterion assesses to what extent the candidate has achieved the communicative goal of the task and whether the length of the text complies with the requirements.
- **Comprehensibility**
  The criterion assesses whether the text is comprehensible for the reader; to what extent structural, lexical errors and mistakes in spelling hinder understanding.
- **Layout**
  The criterion assesses whether the text is legible for the reader and whether the corrections hinder understanding.

III. Marking scale

1. Task completion and appropriate length

5 points	4-3 points	2-1 points	0 point
Communicative goals completed; enough detail provided; text has the minimum length (50 words). No points are deducted if the text is longer than 50 words.	Communicative goals mostly completed; enough detail provided, max. 1-2 minor details missing; text has minimum 40 words.	Communicative goals partly completed; task partly misunderstood; part of the text not developed in enough detail; text includes less than 40 words.	Communicative goals not completed; task misunderstood; task not developed in enough detail; text does not exceed 25 words..

2. Comprehensibility

5 points	4-3 points	2-1 points	0 point
The text can be easily followed and understood by the reader.	The text can be followed and understood by the reader despite several inaccuracies in grammar, vocabulary and spelling.	The reader follows the text with considerable difficulty or partly misunderstands it due to errors in grammar, vocabulary and spelling.	The text cannot be followed and understood by the reader due to errors in grammar, vocabulary and spelling.

3. Layout

1 point	0 point
Legible handwriting, clear corrections.	Illegible handwriting and/or illegible text due to incomprehensible corrections.

Task B (level B1)

I. Summary of criteria

Criteria	Points
Task completion and following the guidelines	5 points
Register and style	2 points
Organisation	4 points
Vocabulary	5 points
Accuracy and spelling	5 points
Layout	1 point
TOTAL	22 points

If the candidate reaches zero score in the criterion *Task completion and following the guidelines* or in the criterion *Layout,* his/her task cannot be marked according to the other criteria either; the TOTAL score in this case is zero.

II. Content of criteria:

- **Task completion and following the guidelines**
  This criterion assesses to what extent the candidate has reached the communicative goal of the task; how many guidelines s/he has elaborated on and to what extent and whether s/he has reached the minimum length.

- **Register and style**
  This criterion assesses whether the register and style of the text correspond to the communicative aim of the task and the relationship between writer and reader and whether the text affects the reader according to the writer's intention.

- **Organisation**
  This criterion assesses whether the candidate has arranged the text logically according to the given guidelines; has used paragraphs appropriately; has used the cohesive devices (linking elements, pronouns, etc)

- **Vocabulary**
  This criterion assesses whether the vocabulary used is appropriate for the topic, situation and function of the text; whether the range used is appropriate for the level.

- **Accuracy and spelling**
  This criterion assesses whether the text complies with the norms of English grammar and spelling; whether the grammatical and spelling errors to what extent hinder understanding at the first reading.

- **Layout**
  The criterion assesses whether the text is legible for the reader and whether the corrections hinder understanding.

III. Marking scale

1. Task completion and following the guidelines

5 points	4-3 points	2-1 points	0 point
The communicative goal has been reached; all guidelines have been taken into consideration; the text is of appropriate length (10 % difference allowed).	The communicative goal has been mostly reached; at least two guidelines sufficiently elaborated on; the rest partly (4 points) or one guideline sufficiently the rest partly (3 points); the text is more than 10 % shorter or longer than the requirements.	The communicative goal has been partly reached; one guideline sufficiently elaborated on, another one partly, the rest not dealt with (2 points); or all guidelines partly elaborated on, and one not dealt with at all (1 point); the text is more than 10 % shorter or longer than the requirement.	The communicative goal not reached due to misunderstanding the task or not any of the guidelines elaborated on sufficiently and more than one not dealt with at all; the text is shorter than 50% of the requirement.

2. Register and style

2 points	1 point	0 point
Register and style fully appropriate for the communicative aim of the task and the relationship between writer and reader; the text affects the reader according to the writer's intention.	Register and style inconsistent; the text does not always affect the reader according to the writer's intention.	Register and style not appropriate for the communicative aim of the task and the relationship between writer and reader; the text does not affect the reader according to the writer's intention.

3. Organisation

4 points	3-2 points	1 point	0 point
The organisation of the text and arrangement of ideas along guidelines logical; there is introduction and conclusion; paragraphs used appropriately; cohesive devices used appropriately. .	The organisation of the text and arrangement of ideas along guidelines mostly logical; uses paragraphs (3 points), there is at least introductory and closing paragraph (2 points); cohesive devices used mostly appropriately.	The organisation of the text and arrangement of ideas along guidelines not logical throughout the whole text; paragraphs not used; several cohesive devices used inaccurately.	The text illogical and confused due to lack of logical structuring and inappropriate use of cohesive devices or the text is so short that it cannot be assessed as text.

4. Vocabulary

5 points	4-3 points	2-1 points	0 point
Vocabulary appropriate for topic and communicative goal; range and variety appropriate for the level.	Vocabulary appropriate for topic and communicative goal; range and variety mostly appropriate for the level; the few cases of inappropriate vocabulary do not hinder understanding.	Vocabulary mostly appropriate for topic and communicative goal, though range of vocabulary limited. Several repetitions; inappropriate vocabulary hinders understanding at several places.	Vocabulary limited; simple vocabulary used not appropriate for topic and communicative goal; incorrect vocabulary hinders understanding at several places.

5. Accuracy and spelling

5 points	4-3 points	2-1 point	0 point
The text complies with the norms of English grammar and spelling; the low number of inaccuracies in grammar and spelling do not hinder understanding.	The text contains several inaccuracies in grammar and spelling which do not hinder understanding; or some inaccuracies which might affect understanding.	The text contains several inaccuracies in grammar and spelling which hinder understanding, and contains several inaccuracies which do not affect understanding.	The text at several places is incomprehensible due to inaccuracies in grammar and spelling.

(The required structures for the level is listed in the Detailed Requirements Document.)

6. Layout

1 point	0 point
Legible handwriting, clear corrections.	Illegible handwriting and/or illegible text due to incomprehensible corrections.

Appendix 5
(The questionnaire was sent out in a booklet form.)

Dear Colleague,

I hope you can find a few minutes to fill in this questionnaire. I am currently conducting research into teaching writing in the secondary classroom. I would like to gain insight into what English teachers' needs are in terms of a future in-service EFL writing training course at our university. I will treat your answers confidentially, no individual schools or teachers will be named in the research findings. I know you are very busy, so feel free to answer the open-ended questions in Hungarian. Please send the questionnaire back to me at ELTE Angol Tanárképzo Központ, 1146 Budapest, Ajtósi D. sor 19-21. before 31 March.
If you'd like to know more about the research or its outcomes, do not hesitate to contact me via e-mail: halapimagdi@hotmail.com

Thank you very much for your contribution.

Halápi Magdolna

1. How confident do you feel about teaching the following areas to your students? Tick the appropriate answer.

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	not confident at all
grammar				
vocabulary				
reading skills				
listening skills				
speaking skills				
writing skills				

2. How confident do you feel about handling the following writing tasks in the classroom? Tick the appropriate answer.

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	not confident at all
Writing postcards and greeting cards				
Arranging sentences into paragraphs				
Arranging paragraphs into passages				

	very confident	moderately confident	not very confident	not confident at all
Writing instructions, directions				
Writing informal letters				
Writing formal letters				
Writing up a story with the help of guidelines				
Writing up a story with a given beginning or ending				
Completing forms and questionnaires				
Writing texts with the help of pictures or other prompts				
Writing short notes, diary entries				

3. How useful would you find the following components of an in-service training course dealing with teaching writing?

	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all
How to motivate my students to write				
How to plan and structure the writing task				
How to help my students to collect ideas for the task				
How to teach the features of the English written discourse				
How to deal with formality-informality				

	very useful	rather useful	not very useful	not useful at all
How to teach writing styles (e.g. descriptive/explanatory, intellectual/emotional writing)				
How to make my students co-operate				
How to use time effectively				
How to handle students' drafts				
How to give feedback to my students				
How to mark my students' writing				
How to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination				

Other components you would like to see in the programme:

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. Tick the factors that determine the content and methodology of your writing syllabus. You can tick more than one factor.

My own ideas and materials ☐

My students' needs and wishes ☐

The coursebook ☐

The requirements of the English frame curriculum (kerettanterv) ☐

The school curriculum ☐

The requirements of the present school-leaving examination ☐

The requirements of other language examinations ☐

Other (specify) .....

5. Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes (e.g. pen-friends, e-mail etc.)?

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

If yes, what are these activities?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Do you incorporate them in your teaching?

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

If yes, how do you incorporate them?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. If you can think of anything you would need as an English teacher to enable your students to become better writers of English, please write it down here:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Finally, please indicate a few personal details.

Name and address of your school:

Sex:

How long have you been teaching English?

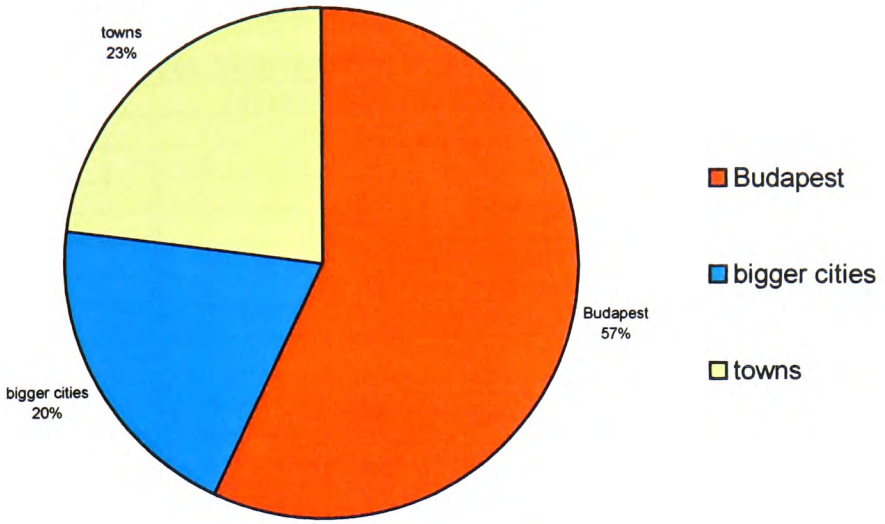
How old are your students? 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 (please, circle)

What proficiency levels are you teaching? Elementary, Beginner, Pre-Intermediate, Intermediate, Upper-Intermediate, Advanced (please, circle)

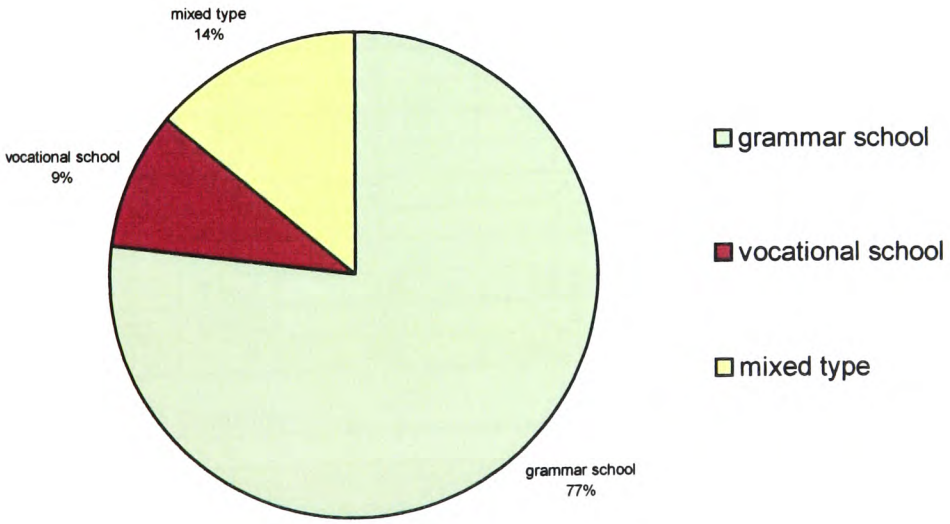
♥Thanks♥

Appendix 6

Geographical distribution of respondents' schools



Distribution of respondents according to school types



Appendix 7

6. How long have you been teaching English?

Statistics

How long have you been teaching English? (years)

N	Valid	125
	Missing	16

How long have you been teaching English? (years)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1,4	1,6	1,6
	2	7	5,0	5,6	7,2
	3	7	5,0	5,6	12,8
	4	10	7,1	8,0	20,8
	5	7	5,0	5,6	26,4
	6	8	5,7	6,4	32,8
	7	5	3,5	4,0	36,8
	8	4	2,8	3,2	40,0
	9	1	,7	,8	40,8
	10	14	9,9	11,2	52,0
	11	3	2,1	2,4	54,4
	12	6	4,3	4,8	59,2
	13	3	2,1	2,4	61,6
	14	3	2,1	2,4	64,0
	15	7	5,0	5,6	69,6
	16	5	3,5	4,0	73,6
	17	1	,7	,8	74,4
	18	4	2,8	3,2	77,6
	19	1	,7	,8	78,4
	20	4	2,8	3,2	81,6
	21	3	2,1	2,4	84,0
	22	5	3,5	4,0	88,0
	24	1	,7	,8	88,8
	25	4	2,8	3,2	92,0
	26	3	2,1	2,4	94,4
	27	2	1,4	1,6	96,0
	28	1	,7	,8	96,8
	32	2	1,4	1,6	98,4
	33	1	,7	,8	99,2
	40	1	,7	,8	100,0
	Total	125	88,7	100,0	
Missing	9999	16	11,3		
Total		141	100,0		

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	125	1	40	12,23	8,30
Valid N (listwise)	125				

How long have you been teaching English? (years)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-9	51	36,2	36,2	36,2
	10-	90	63,8	63,8	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

Appendix 8

6. How old are your students?

How old are your students? (11)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	128	90,8	90,8	90,8
	tanítja	13	9,2	9,2	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (12)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	118	83,7	83,7	83,7
	tanítja	23	16,3	16,3	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (13)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	108	76,6	76,6	76,6
	tanítja	33	23,4	23,4	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (14)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	67	47,5	47,5	47,5
	tanítja	74	52,5	52,5	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (15)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	41	29,1	29,1	29,1
	tanítja	100	70,9	70,9	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (16)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	35	24,8	24,8	24,8
	tanítja	105	74,5	74,5	99,3
	11	1	,7	,7	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (17)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	37	26,2	26,2	26,2
	tanítja	104	73,8	73,8	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

How old are your students? (18)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	36	25,5	25,5	25,5
	tanítja	105	74,5	74,5	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

Statistics
How old are your students? - csoportosítva

N	Valid	138
	Missing	3

How old are your students? - csoportosítva

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	41	29,1	29,7	29,7
	11-13 éveseket tanít	2	1,4	1,4	31,2
	14-18 éveseket tanít	95	67,4	68,8	100,0
	Total	138	97,9	100,0	
Missing	9999	3	2,1		
Total		141	100,0		

Mivel a 2. kategória igen alacsony elemszámú ezért célszerű összevonni: (a továbbiakban így szerepel majd)

How old are your students? - csoportosítva

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	43	30,5	31,2	31,2
	14-18 éveseket tanít	95	67,4	68,8	100,0
	Total	138	97,9	100,0	
Missing	9999	3	2,1		
Total		141	100,0		

Appendix 9

6. What proficiency levels are you teaching?

Statistics

		What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary)	What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner)	What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate)	What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate)	What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate)	What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced)
N	Valid	141	141	141	141	141	141
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	92	65,2	65,2	65,2
	tanítja	49	34,8	34,8	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	64	45,4	45,4	45,4
	tanítja	77	54,6	54,6	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	29	20,6	20,6	20,6
	tanítja	112	79,4	79,4	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	31	22,0	22,0	22,0
	tanítja	110	78,0	78,0	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

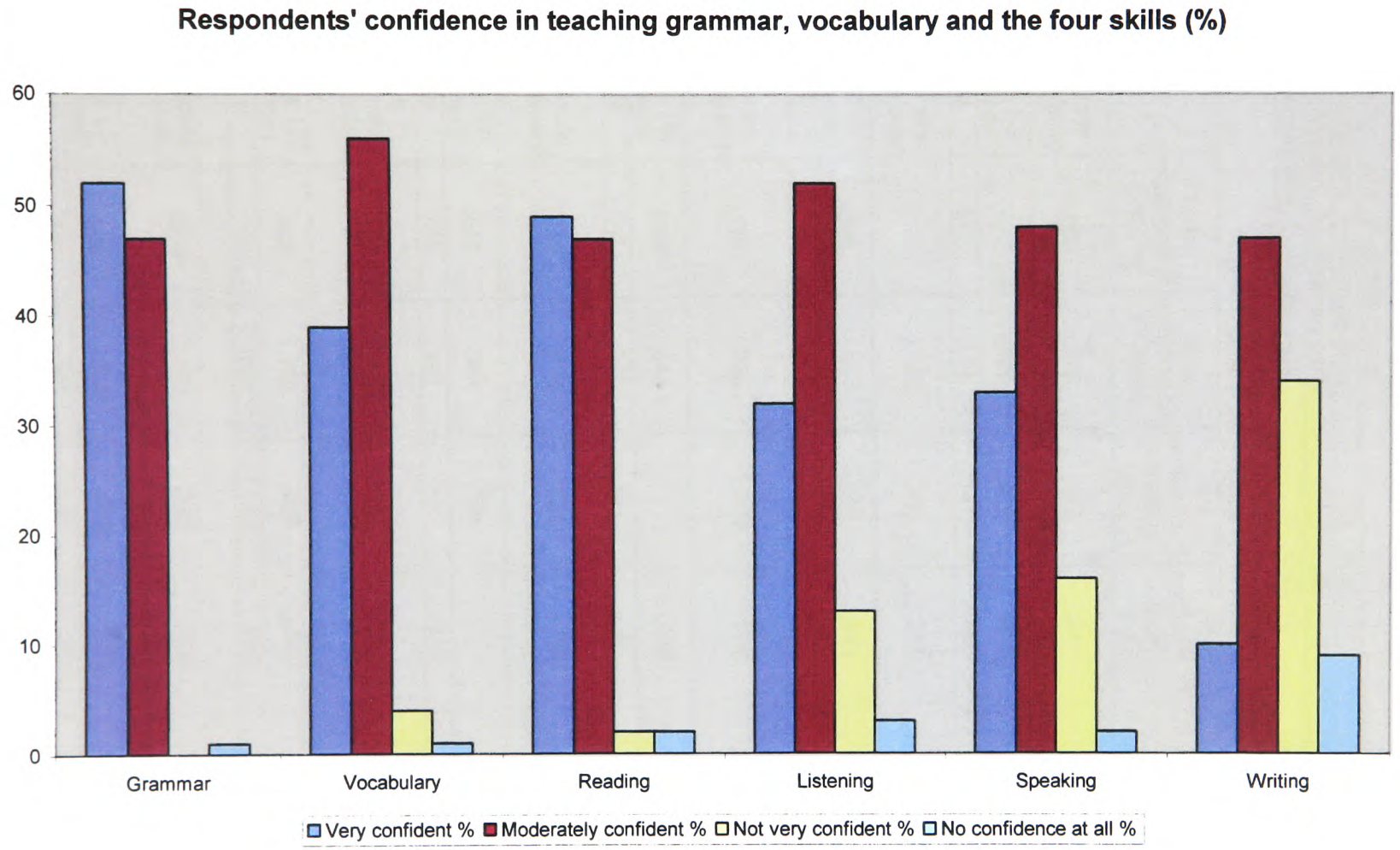
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	78	55,3	55,3	55,3
	tanítja	63	44,7	44,7	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nem tanítja	124	87,9	87,9	87,9
	tanítja	17	12,1	12,1	100,0
	Total	141	100,0	100,0	

Appendix 10


Respondents' confidence in teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills (%)
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Grammar
Vocabulary
Reading
Listening
Speaking
Writing
Very confident %
Moderately confident %
Not very confident %
No confidence at all %

Appendix 11
1. Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How confident...? - grammar	1,50	,54	141
How confident...? - vocabulary	1,67	,59	141
How confident...? - reading skills	1,57	,65	141
How confident...? - listening skills	1,87	,74	141
How confident...? - speaking skills	1,88	,75	140
How confident...? - writing skills	2,43	,79	141

Correlations

		How confident...? - grammar	How confident...? - vocabulary	How confident...? - reading skills	How confident...? - listening skills	How confident...? - speaking skills	How confident...? - writing skills
How confident...? - grammar	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,318	,199	,211	,235	,219
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,000**	**,018**	**,012**	**,005**	**,009**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	,318	1,000	,205	,275	,346	,182
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	,	**,015**	**,001**	**,000**	**,031**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - reading skills	Pearson Correlation	,199	,205	1,000	,524	,364	,383
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,018**	**,015**	,	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - listening skills	Pearson Correlation	,211	,275	,524	1,000	,381	,309
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,012**	**,001**	**,000**	,	**,000**	**,000**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - speaking skills	Pearson Correlation	,235	,346	,364	,381	1,000	,386
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,005**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	,	**,000**
	N	140	140	140	140	140	140
How confident...? - writing skills	Pearson Correlation	,219	,182	,383	,309	,386	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,009**	**,031**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	,
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 11
1. Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How confident...? - grammar	1,50	,54	141
How confident...? - vocabulary	1,67	,59	141
How confident...? - reading skills	1,57	,65	141
How confident...? - listening skills	1,87	,74	141
How confident...? - speaking skills	1,88	,75	140
How confident...? - writing skills	2,43	,79	141

Correlations

		How confident...? - grammar	How confident...? - vocabulary	How confident...? - reading skills	How confident...? - listening skills	How confident...? - speaking skills	How confident...? - writing skills
How confident...? - grammar	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,318	,199	,211	,235	,219
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,000**	**,018**	**,012**	**,005**	**,009**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	,318	1,000	,205	,275	,346	,182
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	,	**,015**	**,001**	**,000**	**,031**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - reading skills	Pearson Correlation	,199	,205	1,000	,524	,364	,383
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,018**	**,015**	,	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - listening skills	Pearson Correlation	,211	,275	,524	1,000	,381	,309
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,012**	**,001**	**,000**	,	**,000**	**,000**
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141
How confident...? - speaking skills	Pearson Correlation	,235	,346	,364	,381	1,000	,386
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,005**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	,	**,000**
	N	140	140	140	140	140	140
How confident...? - writing skills	Pearson Correlation	,219	,182	,383	,309	,386	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,009**	**,031**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	,
	N	141	141	141	141	140	141

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 12
7. Correlations

Correlations

		How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	How confident...? - writing informal letters	How confident...? - writing formal letters	How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,357	,324	,373	,520	,328	,380	,341	,238	,161	,346
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,005**	**,057**	**,000**
	N	140	137	139	140	140	139	140	139	139	140	138
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	,357	1,000	,683	,397	,271	,193	,446	,407	,119	,376	,359
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	,	**,000**	**,000**	**,001**	**,024**	**,000**	**,000**	**,166**	**,000**	**,000**
	N	137	138	138	138	138	137	138	137	137	138	136
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into	Pearson Correlation	,324	,683	1,000	,355	,392	,274	,447	,465	,177	,439	,363

passages												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	**,000**	**,**	**,000**	**,000**	**,001**	**,000**	**,000**	**,037**	**,000**	**,000**
	N	139	138	140	140	140	139	140	139	139	140	138
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	Pearson Correlation	,373	,397	,355	1,000	,346	,373	,322	,318	,307	,284	,439
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,001**	**,000**
	N	140	138	140	141	141	140	141	140	140	141	139
How confident...? - writing informal letters	Pearson Correlation	,520	,271	,392	,346	1,000	,475	,359	,385	,234	,430	,381
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	**,001**	**,000**	**,000**	**,**	**,000**	**,000**	**,000**	**,005**	**,000**	**,000**
	N	140	138	140	141	141	140	141	140	140	141	139
How confident...? - writing formal letters	Pearson Correlation	,328	,193	,274	,373	,475	1,000	,250	,234	,225	,210	,152
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,000**	**,024**	**,001**	**,000**	**,000**	**,**	**,003**	**,006**	**,008**	**,013**	**,074**
	N	139	137	139	140	140	140	140	139	139	140	138
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	Pearson Correlation	,380	,446	,447	,322	,359	,250	1,000	,741	,273	,551	,378

Appendix 13

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	Between Groups	8,049	3	2,683	9,039	**,000**
	Within Groups	40,372	136	,297		
	Total	48,421	139			
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	Between Groups	10,412	3	3,471	6,764	**,000**
	Within Groups	68,755	134	,513		
	Total	79,167	137			
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	Between Groups	19,753	3	6,584	15,382	**,000**
	Within Groups	58,218	136	,428		
	Total	77,971	139			
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	Between Groups	6,185	3	2,062	3,648	**,014**
	Within Groups	77,432	137	,565		
	Total	83,617	140			
How confident...? - writing informal letters	Between Groups	21,803	3	7,268	24,795	**,000**
	Within Groups	40,155	137	,293		
	Total	61,957	140			
How confident...? - writing formal letters	Between Groups	18,592	3	6,197	13,695	**,000**
	Within Groups	61,544	136	,453		
	Total	80,136	139			
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	Between Groups	11,115	3	3,705	8,738	**,000**
	Within Groups	58,091	137	,424		
	Total	69,206	140			
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	Between Groups	14,765	3	4,922	9,972	**,000**
	Within Groups	67,121	136	,494		
	Total	81,886	139			
How confident...? - How confident...? – completing forms and questionaires	Between Groups	1,247	3	,416	1,052	**,372**
	Within Groups	53,746	136	,395		
	Total	54,993	139			
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	Between Groups	15,789	3	5,263	11,947	**,000**
	Within Groups	60,353	137	,441		
	Total	76,142	140			
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	Between Groups	8,630	3	2,877	5,338	**,002**
	Within Groups	72,751	135	,539		
	Total	81,381	138			

Appendix 14

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	Between Groups	1,118	3	,373	1,090	**,356**
	Within Groups	46,840	137	,342		
	Total	47,957	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	Between Groups	2,497	3	,832	2,438	**,067**
	Within Groups	46,439	136	,341		
	Total	48,936	139			
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	Between Groups	4,454	3	1,485	5,052	**,002**
	Within Groups	39,967	136	,294		
	Total	44,421	139			
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	Between Groups	3,420	3	1,140	2,588	**,056**
	Within Groups	60,339	137	,440		
	Total	63,759	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	Between Groups	,774	3	,258	,632	**,595**
	Within Groups	55,865	137	,408		
	Total	56,638	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	Between Groups	10,584	3	3,528	6,942	**,000**
	Within Groups	69,629	137	,508		
	Total	80,213	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	Between Groups	2,473	3	,824	1,376	**,253**
	Within Groups	82,080	137	,599		
	Total	84,553	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	Between Groups	2,385	3	,795	1,831	**,144**
	Within Groups	59,501	137	,434		
	Total	61,887	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts	Between Groups	,685	3	,228	,414	**,743**
	Within Groups	75,001	136	,551		
	Total	75,686	139			
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	Between Groups	2,472	3	,824	1,759	**,158**
	Within Groups	64,181	137	,468		
	Total	66,652	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	Between Groups	2,220	3	,740	1,778	**,154**
	Within Groups	57,028	137	,416		
	Total	59,248	140			
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	Between Groups	,224	3	7,481E-02	,235	**,872**
	Within Groups	43,534	137	,318		
	Total	43,759	140			

Appendix 15

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials

Crosstab

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? - writing skills	**very confident**	Count	4	10	14
		% of Total	2,8%	7,1%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	19	47	66
		% of Total	13,5%	33,3%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	18	30	48
		% of Total	12,8%	21,3%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count		13	13
		% of Total		9,2%	9,2%
Total		Count	41	100	141
		% of Total	29,1%	70,9%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,985	3	**,072**
Likelihood Ratio	10,510	3	,015
Linear-by-Linear Association	,647	1	,421
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,78.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	5	9	14
		% of Total	3,5%	6,4%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	13	53	66
		% of Total	9,2%	37,6%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	19	29	48
		% of Total	13,5%	20,6%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	7	6	13
		% of Total	5,0%	4,3%	9,2%
Total		Count	44	97	141
		% of Total	31,2%	68,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,878	3	,031
Likelihood Ratio	8,915	3	,030
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,499	1	,034
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,06.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	4	10	14
		% of Total	2,8%	7,1%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	17	49	66
		% of Total	12,1%	34,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	10	38	48
		% of Total	7,1%	27,0%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count		13	13
		% of Total		9,2%	9,2%
Total		Count	31	110	141
		% of Total	22,0%	78,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,602	3	,203
Likelihood Ratio	7,352	3	,061
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,384	1	,066
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,86.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	7	7	14
		% of Total	5,0%	5,0%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	41	25	66
		% of Total	29,1%	17,7%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	34	14	48

		% of Total	24,1%	9,9%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	13		13
		% of Total	9,2%		9,2%
Total		Count	95	46	141
		% of Total	67,4%	32,6%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,308	3	,025
Likelihood Ratio	13,144	3	,004
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,073	1	,004
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,24.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? – writing skills	very confident	Count	9	5	14
		% of Total	6,4%	3,5%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	53	13	66
		% of Total	37,6%	9,2%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	40	8	48
		% of Total	28,4%	5,7%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	13		13
		% of Total	9,2%		9,2%
Total		Count	115	26	141
		% of Total	81,6%	18,4%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,887	3	,117
Likelihood Ratio	7,797	3	,050
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,853	1	,028
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,40.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? – writing skills	very confident	Count	3	11	14
		% of Total	2,1%	7,8%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	24	42	66
		% of Total	17,0%	29,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	18	30	48
		% of Total	12,8%	21,3%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	10	3	13
		% of Total	7,1%	2,1%	9,2%
Total		Count	55	86	141
		% of Total	39,0%	61,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,913	3	,019
Likelihood Ratio	9,969	3	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,343	1	,012
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,07.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations		Total
			nem	igen	
How confident...? – writing skills	very confident	Count	10	4	14
		% of Total	7,1%	2,8%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	17	49	66
		% of Total	12,1%	34,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	14	34	48
		% of Total	9,9%	24,1%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	5	8	13
		% of Total	3,5%	5,7%	9,2%
Total		Count	46	95	141
		% of Total	32,6%	67,4%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,469	3	,009
Likelihood Ratio	10,748	3	,013
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,587	1	,208
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,24.

How confident...? - writing skills * Factors determine your writing syllabus - other (specify)

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - other (specify)		Total
			nem írt semmit	írt valamit	
How confident...? – writing skills	very confident	Count	11	3	14
		% of Total	7,8%	2,1%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	61	5	66
		% of Total	43,3%	3,5%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	46	2	48
		% of Total	32,6%	1,4%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	13		13
		% of Total	9,2%		9,2%
Total		Count	131	10	141
		% of Total	92,9%	7,1%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,006	3	,111
Likelihood Ratio	5,608	3	,132
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,704	1	,030
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,92.

Appendix 16

How confident...? - writing skills * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	11	3	14
		% of Total	7,9%	2,2%	10,1%
	moderately confident	Count	50	15	65
		% of Total	36,0%	10,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	32	15	47
		% of Total	23,0%	10,8%	33,8%
	not confident at all	Count	5	8	13
		% of Total	3,6%	5,8%	9,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	8,276	3	**,041**
Likelihood Ratio	7,654	3	,054
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,095	1	,014
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,83.

Appendix 17

How confident...? - writing skills * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	5	9	14
		% of Total	3,5%	6,4%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	24	42	66
		% of Total	17,0%	29,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	17	31	48
		% of Total	12,1%	22,0%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	5	8	13
		% of Total	3,5%	5,7%	9,2%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	,044	3	**,998**
Likelihood Ratio	,043	3	,998
Linear-by-Linear Association	,004	1	,948
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 1 cells (12,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,70.

Appendix 18

How confident...? - writing skills * How old are your students? - csoportosítva Crosstabulation

			How old are your students? - csoportosítva		Total
			11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	14-18 éveseket tanít	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	2	12	14
		% of Total	1,4%	8,7%	10,1%
	moderately confident	Count	24	40	64
		% of Total	17,4%	29,0%	46,4%
	not very confident	Count	10	37	47
		% of Total	7,2%	26,8%	34,1%
	not confident at all	Count	7	6	13
		% of Total	5,1%	4,3%	9,4%
Total		Count	43	95	138
		% of Total	31,2%	68,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	8,317	3	**,040**
Likelihood Ratio	8,460	3	,037
Linear-by-Linear Association	,689	1	,406
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,05.

Appendix 19

16. Azok, akik az 1. kérdésben kevéssé, egyáltalán nem, nagyon, eléggé érzik magukat kompetensnek az írástanításban hányan tanítanak közülük magas presztizsû iskolában

Az iskola presztizse

How confident...? - writing skills			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
very confident	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	4	28,6	28,6	28,6
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	10	71,4	71,4	100,0
		Total	14	100,0	100,0	
moderately confident	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	28	42,4	42,4	42,4
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	38	57,6	57,6	100,0
		Total	66	100,0	100,0	
not very confident	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	18	37,5	37,5	37,5
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	30	62,5	62,5	100,0
		Total	48	100,0	100,0	
not confident at all	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	8	61,5	61,5	61,5
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	5	38,5	38,5	100,0
		Total	13	100,0	100,0	

How confident...? - writing skills * Az iskola presztizse Crosstabulation

			Az iskola presztizse		Total
			Magas presztizsű iskola	Nem magas presztizsű iskola	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	4	10	14
		% of Total	2,8%	7,1%	9,9%
	moderately confident	Count	28	38	66
		% of Total	19,9%	27,0%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	18	30	48
		% of Total	12,8%	21,3%	34,0%
	not confident at all	Count	8	5	13
		% of Total	5,7%	3,5%	9,2%
Total		Count	58	83	141
		% of Total	41,1%	58,9%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	3,455	3	**,327**
Likelihood Ratio	3,452	3	,327
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,311	1	,252
N of Valid Cases	141		

a 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,35

Appendix 20

How long have you been teaching English? (years) – How confident?

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How confident...? - grammar	1,50	,54	141
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125

Correlations

		How confident...? - grammar	How long have you been teaching English? (years)
How confident...? - grammar	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,210
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,019**
	N	141	125
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	-,210	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,019	,
	N	125	125

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - vocabulary	1,67	,59	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - vocabulary
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,566**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	,052	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,566	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - reading skills	1,57	,65	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - reading skills
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,967**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - reading skills	Pearson Correlation	-,004	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,967	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - listening skills	1,87	,74	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - listening skills
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,064
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,476**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - listening skills	Pearson Correlation	-,064	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,476	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - speaking skills	1,88	,75	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - speaking skills
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,113**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - speaking skills	Pearson Correlation	-,143	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,113	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing skills	2,43	,79	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing skills
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,180**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - writing skills	Pearson Correlation	-,121	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,180	,
	N	125	141

Appendix 21

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	1,44	,59	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,351**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	Pearson Correlation	-,084	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,351	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	1,83	,76	138

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,160
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,078**
	N	125	122
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	Pearson Correlation	-,160	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,078	,
	N	122	138

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	1,99	,75	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,226
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,012**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	Pearson Correlation	-,226	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,012	,
	N	124	140

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	1,79	,77	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing instructions, derections
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,918**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	Pearson Correlation	,009	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,918	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing informal letters	1,60	,67	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing informal letters
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,567**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - writing informal letters	Pearson Correlation	,052	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,567	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing formal letters	2,22	,76	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing formal letters
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,731**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - writing formal letters	Pearson Correlation	-,031	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,731	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	1,82	,70	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,775**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	Pearson Correlation	-,026	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,775	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	1,97	,77	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,432**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	Pearson Correlation	,071	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,432	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	1,49	,63	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,272
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,002**
	N	125	124
How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	Pearson Correlation	,272	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	,
	N	124	140

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	1,92	,74	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,052**
	N	125	125
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	Pearson Correlation	,174	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,052	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	1,89	,77	139

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,501**
	N	125	123
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	Pearson Correlation	,061	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,501	,
	N	123	139

Appendix 22

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	Equal variances assumed	6,376	**,013**	,960	138	**,339**
	Equal variances not assumed			,879	78,381	**,382**
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	Equal variances assumed	,432	**,512**	,775	136	**,439**
	Equal variances not assumed			,752	92,993	**,454**
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	Equal variances assumed	,097	**,756**	1,350	138	**,179**
	Equal variances not assumed			1,337	98,543	**,184**
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	Equal variances assumed	4,141	**,044**	1,101	139	**,273**
	Equal variances not assumed			1,032	85,565	**,305**
How confident...? - writing informal letters	Equal variances assumed	,034	**,855**	-,891	139	**,375**
	Equal variances not assumed			-,886	102,315	**,378**
How confident...? - writing formal letters	Equal variances assumed	,134	**,715**	,394	138	**,694**
	Equal variances not assumed			,392	102,687	**,696**
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	Equal variances assumed	,115	**,735**	-,646	139	**,520**
	Equal variances not assumed			-,644	102,998	**,521**
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	Equal variances assumed	,737	**,392**	-1,040	138	**,300**
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,012	95,908	**,314**
How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	Equal variances assumed	,129	**,720**	-1,439	138	**,152**
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,401	96,044	**,164**
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	Equal variances assumed	,069	**,793**	-2,423	139	**,017**
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,510	115,247	**,013**
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	Equal variances assumed	,008	**,929**	-,829	137	**,409**
	Equal variances not assumed			-,852	110,318	**,396**

Appendix 23

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	Equal variances assumed	,687	,409	-,483	139	,630
	Equal variances not assumed			-,491	109,251	,624
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	Equal variances assumed	3,306	,071	1,094	138	,276
	Equal variances not assumed			1,032	87,305	,305
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	Equal variances assumed	,347	,557	-,551	138	,582
	Equal variances not assumed			-,561	110,160	,576
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	Equal variances assumed	1,958	,164	-,193	139	,847
	Equal variances not assumed			-,184	89,675	,855
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	Equal variances assumed	,001	,970	-,199	139	,843
	Equal variances not assumed			-,201	107,486	,841
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	Equal variances assumed	,048	,827	,951	139	,344
	Equal variances not assumed			,927	96,418	,356
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	Equal variances assumed	2,195	,141	2,158	139	,033
	Equal variances not assumed			2,041	87,872	,044
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	Equal variances assumed	,006	,940	1,470	139	,144
	Equal variances not assumed			1,413	92,328	,161
How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts	Equal variances assumed	1,323	,252	2,382	138	,019
	Equal variances not assumed			2,219	84,025	,029
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	Equal variances assumed	3,447	,065	1,136	139	,258
	Equal variances not assumed			1,177	115,213	,242
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	Equal variances assumed	,075	,785	,183	139	,855
	Equal variances not assumed			,180	99,529	,857
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	Equal variances assumed	1,413	,237	,706	139	,482
	Equal variances not assumed			,676	91,097	,501

Appendix 24

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have.you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	1,40	,59	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,107
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,233**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	Pearson Correlation	,107	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,233	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	1,38	,59	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,182
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,043**
	N	125	124
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	Pearson Correlation	-,182	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,043	,
	N	124	140

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	1,56	,57	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,803**
	N	125	124
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	Pearson Correlation	,023	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,803	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	1,60	,67	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,786**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	Pearson Correlation	-,024	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,786	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	1,68	,64	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,265**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	Pearson Correlation	-,100	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,265	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	1,72	,76	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,192
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,032**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	Pearson Correlation	-,192	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,032	,
	N	125	141

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	1,64	,78	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,034
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,704**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	Pearson Correlation	-,034	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,704	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	1,70	,66	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,768**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	Pearson Correlation	-,027	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,768	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts	1,73	,74	140

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,175
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,052**
	N	125	124
How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts	Pearson Correlation	-,175	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,052	,
	N	124	140

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	1,72	,69	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,058
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,521**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	Pearson Correlation	-,058	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,521	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	1,50	,65	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,406**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	Pearson Correlation	,075	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,406	,
	N	125	141

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	12,23	8,30	125
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	1,27	,56	141

Correlations

		How long have you been teaching English? (years)	How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination
How long have you been teaching English? (years)	Pearson Correlation	1,000	-,010
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,	**,914**
	N	125	125
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	Pearson Correlation	-,010	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,914	,
	N	125	141

Appendix 25

Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials	nem	Count	13	28	41
		% of Total	9,2%	19,9%	29,1%
	igen	Count	38	62	100
		% of Total	27,0%	44,0%	70,9%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,499	1	**,480**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14,83.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes	nem	Count	16	28	44
		% of Total	11,3%	19,9%	31,2%
	igen	Count	35	62	97
		% of Total	24,8%	44,0%	68,8%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,001	1	**,974**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,91.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook	nem	Count	11	20	31
		% of Total	7,8%	14,2%	22,0%

	igen	Count	40	70	110
		% of Total	28,4%	49,6%	78,0%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,008	1	**,928**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,21.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum	nem	Count	41	54	95
		% of Total	29,1%	38,3%	67,4%
	igen	Count	10	36	46
		% of Total	7,1%	25,5%	32,6%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,159	1	**,013**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,64.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum	nem	Count	44	71	115
		% of Total	31,2%	50,4%	81,6%
	igen	Count	7	19	26
		% of Total	5,0%	13,5%	18,4%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,181	1	**,277**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,40.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination	nem	Count	17	38	55
		% of Total	12,1%	27,0%	39,0%
	igen	Count	34	52	86
		% of Total	24,1%	36,9%	61,0%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,081	1	**,298**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19,89.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations	nem	Count	16	30	46
		% of Total	11,3%	21,3%	32,6%
	igen	Count	35	60	95
		% of Total	24,8%	42,6%	67,4%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,057	1	**,811**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,64.

Appendix 26

Akiknek 0-9 év gyakorlatuk van - Akik ennél régebben tanítanak anolt

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes

How long have you been teaching English? (years)			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-9	Valid	yes	36	70,6	70,6	70,6
		no	15	29,4	29,4	100,0
		Total	51	100,0	100,0	
10-	Valid	yes	62	68,9	70,5	70,5
		no	26	28,9	29,5	100,0
		Total	88	97,8	100,0	
	Missing	9999	2	2,2		
	Total		90	100,0		

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes	yes	Count	36	62	98
		% of Total	25,9%	44,6%	70,5%
	no	Count	15	26	41
		% of Total	10,8%	18,7%	29,5%
Total		Count	51	88	139
		% of Total	36,7%	63,3%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,000	1	,987		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,04.

Appendix 27

Akiknek 0-9 év gyakorlatuk van - Akik ennél régebben tanítanak anolt
beépítik-e a tanárok ezeket a tanításba (5.kérdés)

Doy you incorporate them in your teaching?

How long have you been teaching English? (years)			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-9	Valid	yes	18	35,3	36,0	36,0
		no	32	62,7	64,0	100,0
		Total	50	98,0	100,0	
	Missing	9999	1	2,0		
	Total		51	100,0		
10-	Valid	yes	20	22,2	26,3	26,3
		no	56	62,2	73,7	100,0
		Total	76	84,4	100,0	
	Missing	9999	14	15,6		
	Total		90	100,0		

Doy you incorporate them in your teaching? * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
Doy you incorporate them in your teaching?	yes	Count	18	20	38
		% of Total	14,3%	15,9%	30,2%
	no	Count	32	56	88
		% of Total	25,4%	44,4%	69,8%
Total		Count	50	76	126
		% of Total	39,7%	60,3%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,343	1	**,247**		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,08.

Appendix 28

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary)	nem tanítja	Count	37	55	92
		% of Total	26,2%	39,0%	65,2%
	tanítja	Count	14	35	49
		% of Total	9,9%	24,8%	34,8%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,878	1	**,171**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17,72.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner)	nem tanítja	Count	23	41	64
		% of Total	16,3%	29,1%	45,4%
	tanítja	Count	28	49	77
		% of Total	19,9%	34,8%	54,6%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,003	1	**,958**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,15.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	14	15	29
		% of Total	9,9%	10,6%	20,6%

	tanítja	Count	37	75	112
		% of Total	26,2%	53,2%	79,4%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,317	1	**,128**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,49.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	11	20	31
		% of Total	7,8%	14,2%	22,0%
	tanítja	Count	40	70	110
		% of Total	28,4%	49,6%	78,0%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,008	1	**,928**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,21.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	31	47	78
		% of Total	22,0%	33,3%	55,3%
	tanítja	Count	20	43	63
		% of Total	14,2%	30,5%	44,7%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,966	1	**,326**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22,79.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced) * How long have you been teaching English? (years) Crosstabulation

			How long have you been teaching English? (years)		Total
			0-9	10-	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced)	nem tanítja	Count	50	74	124
		% of Total	35,5%	52,5%	87,9%
	tanítja	Count	1	16	17
		% of Total	,7%	11,3%	12,1%
Total		Count	51	90	141
		% of Total	36,2%	63,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,681	1	**,006**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6,15.

Appendix 29

How confident...? - grammar * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - grammar	very confident	Count	52	20	72
		% of Total	37,4%	14,4%	51,8%
	moderately confident	Count	45	21	66
		% of Total	32,4%	15,1%	47,5%
	not confident at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,692	2	,708
Likelihood Ratio	,971	2	,615
Linear-by-Linear Association	,049	1	,825
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How confident...? - vocabulary * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - vocabulary	very confident	Count	36	18	54
		% of Total	25,9%	12,9%	38,8%
	moderately confident	Count	58	20	78
		% of Total	41,7%	14,4%	56,1%
	not very confident	Count	3	3	6
		% of Total	2,2%	2,2%	4,3%
	not confident at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,571	3	,463
Likelihood Ratio	2,750	3	,432
Linear-by-Linear Association	,201	1	,654
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How confident...? - reading skills * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - reading skills	very confident	Count	55	13	68
		% of Total	39,6%	9,4%	48,9%
	moderately confident	Count	40	26	66
		% of Total	28,8%	18,7%	47,5%
	not very confident	Count	2		2
		% of Total	1,4%		1,4%
	not confident at all	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	,7%	1,4%	2,2%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,461	3	,024
Likelihood Ratio	9,937	3	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,438	1	,011
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,59.

How confident...? - listening skills * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - listening skills	very confident	Count	32	13	45
		% of Total	23,0%	9,4%	32,4%
	moderately confident	Count	54	18	72
		% of Total	38,8%	12,9%	51,8%
	not very confident	Count	11	7	18
		% of Total	7,9%	5,0%	12,9%

	not confident at all	Count	1	3	4
		% of Total	,7%	2,2%	2,9%
Total .		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,454	3	,141
Likelihood Ratio	4,981	3	,173
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,963	1	,161
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,18.

How confident...? - speaking skills * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - speaking skills	very confident	Count	39	7	46
		% of Total	28,3%	5,1%	33,3%
	moderately confident	Count	44	23	67
		% of Total	31,9%	16,7%	48,6%
	not very confident	Count	13	9	22
		% of Total	9,4%	6,5%	15,9%
	not confident at all	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	,7%	1,4%	2,2%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,594	3	,035
Likelihood Ratio	8,907	3	,031
Linear-by-Linear Association	7,883	1	,005
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,89.

How confident...? - writing skills * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing skills	very confident	Count	11	3	14
		% of Total	7,9%	2,2%	10,1%
	moderately confident	Count	50	15	65
		% of Total	36,0%	10,8%	46,8%
	not very confident	Count	32	15	47
		% of Total	23,0%	10,8%	33,8%
	not confident at all	Count	5	8	13
		% of Total	3,6%	5,8%	9,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,276	3	,041
Likelihood Ratio	7,654	3	,054
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,095	1	,014
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,83.

Appendix 30

How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	very confident	Count	66	19	85
		% of Total	47,8%	13,8%	61,6%
	moderately confident	Count	28	20	48
		% of Total	20,3%	14,5%	34,8%
	not very confident	Count	2	2	4
		% of Total	1,4%	1,4%	2,9%
	not confident at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,700	3	,082
Likelihood Ratio	6,840	3	,077
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,167	1	,041
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	very confident	Count	39	11	50
		% of Total	28,7%	8,1%	36,8%
	moderately confident	Count	45	15	60
		% of Total	33,1%	11,0%	44,1%
	not very confident	Count	12	12	24
		% of Total	8,8%	8,8%	17,6%
	not confident at all	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	,7%	,7%	1,5%
Total		Count	97	39	136

		% of Total	71,3%	28,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,266	3	,064
Likelihood Ratio	6,776	3	,079
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,361	1	,021
N of Valid Cases	136		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,57.

How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	very confident	Count	31	6	37
		% of Total	22,5%	4,3%	26,8%
	moderately confident	Count	48	20	68
		% of Total	34,8%	14,5%	49,3%
	not very confident	Count	17	14	31
		% of Total	12,3%	10,1%	22,5%
	not confident at all	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	,7%	,7%	1,4%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,167	3	,067
Likelihood Ratio	7,270	3	,064
Linear-by-Linear Association	7,023	1	,008
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,59.

How confident...? - writing instructions, directions * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	very confident	Count	45	10	55
		% of Total	32,4%	7,2%	39,6%
	moderately confident	Count	39	24	63
		% of Total	28,1%	17,3%	45,3%
	not very confident	Count	13	5	18
		% of Total	9,4%	3,6%	12,9%
	not confident at all	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	,7%	1,4%	2,2%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,644	3	,054
Likelihood Ratio	7,642	3	,054
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,055	1	,044
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,88.

How confident...? - writing informal letters * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing informal letters	very confident	Count	58	12	70
		% of Total	41,7%	8,6%	50,4%
	moderately confident	Count	34	24	58
		% of Total	24,5%	17,3%	41,7%
	not very confident	Count	5	5	10
		% of Total	3,6%	3,6%	7,2%
	not confident at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,515	3	,009
Likelihood Ratio	11,942	3	,008
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,157	1	,004
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How confident...? - writing formal letters * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing formal letters	very confident	Count	20	2	22
		% of Total	14,5%	1,4%	15,9%
	moderately confident	Count	47	21	68
		% of Total	34,1%	15,2%	49,3%
	not very confident	Count	28	16	44
		% of Total	20,3%	11,6%	31,9%
	not confident at all	Count	2	2	4
		% of Total	1,4%	1,4%	2,9%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,245	3	,100
Likelihood Ratio	7,214	3	,065
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,201	1	,023
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,19.

How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	very confident	Count	37	10	47
		% of Total	26,6%	7,2%	33,8%
	moderately confident	Count	52	20	72
		% of Total	37,4%	14,4%	51,8%
	not very confident	Count	8	10	18

		% of Total	5,8%	7,2%	12,9%
	not confident at all	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	,7%	,7%	1,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,911	3	,048
Likelihood Ratio	7,378	3	,061
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,124	1	,013
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,59.

How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	very confident	Count	29	8	37
		% of Total	21,0%	5,8%	26,8%
	moderately confident	Count	55	18	73
		% of Total	39,9%	13,0%	52,9%
	not very confident	Count	12	11	23
		% of Total	8,7%	8,0%	16,7%
	not confident at all	Count	1	4	5
		% of Total	,7%	2,9%	3,6%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,721	3	,008
Likelihood Ratio	10,889	3	,012
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,841	1	,003
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,49.

How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	very confident	Count	58	22	80
		% of Total	42,0%	15,9%	58,0%
	moderately confident	Count	35	16	51
		% of Total	25,4%	11,6%	37,0%
	not very confident	Count	3	3	6
		% of Total	2,2%	2,2%	4,3%
	not confident at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,860	3	,602
Likelihood Ratio	2,041	3	,564
Linear-by-Linear Association	,518	1	,472
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	very confident	Count	28	11	39
		% of Total	20,1%	7,9%	28,1%
	moderately confident	Count	57	19	76
		% of Total	41,0%	13,7%	54,7%
	not very confident	Count	12	8	20
		% of Total	8,6%	5,8%	14,4%
	not confident at all	Count	1	3	4
		% of	,7%	2,2%	2,9%

		Total			
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,814	3	,121
Likelihood Ratio	5,322	3	,150
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,511	1	,113
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,18.

How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	very confident	Count	35	9	44
		% of Total	25,5%	6,6%	32,1%
	moderately confident	Count	48	21	69
		% of Total	35,0%	15,3%	50,4%
	not very confident	Count	11	8	19
		% of Total	8,0%	5,8%	13,9%
	not confident at all	Count	2	3	5
		% of Total	1,5%	2,2%	3,6%
Total		Count	96	41	137
		% of Total	70,1%	29,9%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,391	3	,145
Likelihood Ratio	5,227	3	,156
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,239	1	,022
N of Valid Cases	137		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,50.

Appendix 31

How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	very useful	Count	63	26	89
		% of Total	45,3%	18,7%	64,0%
	rather useful	Count	31	12	43
		% of Total	22,3%	8,6%	30,9%
	not very useful	Count	4	3	7
		% of Total	2,9%	2,2%	5,0%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,657	2	,720
Likelihood Ratio	,617	2	,735
Linear-by-Linear Association	,141	1	,707
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,06.

How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	very useful	Count	67	26	93
		% of Total	48,6%	18,8%	67,4%
	rather useful	Count	28	11	39
		% of Total	20,3%	8,0%	28,3%
	not very useful	Count	2	3	5
		% of Total	1,4%	2,2%	3,6%
	not useful at all	Count		1	1
		% of Total		,7%	,7%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,742	3	,192
Likelihood Ratio	4,571	3	,206
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,034	1	,154
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	very useful	Count	43	23	66
		% of Total	31,2%	16,7%	47,8%
	rather useful	Count	52	15	67
		% of Total	37,7%	10,9%	48,6%
	not very useful	Count	2	3	5
		% of Total	1,4%	2,2%	3,6%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,751	2	,093
Likelihood Ratio	4,589	2	,101
Linear-by-Linear Association	,380	1	,537
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 2 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,49.

How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	very useful	Count	51	19	70
		% of Total	36,7%	13,7%	50,4%
	rather useful	Count	40	16	56
		% of Total	28,8%	11,5%	40,3%
	not very useful	Count	6	6	12
		% of Total	4,3%	4,3%	8,6%
	not useful at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,054	3	,383
Likelihood Ratio	3,121	3	,373
Linear-by-Linear Association	,931	1	,335
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	very useful	Count	41	15	56
		% of Total	29,5%	10,8%	40,3%
	rather useful	Count	51	21	72
		% of Total	36,7%	15,1%	51,8%
	not very useful	Count	5	5	10
		% of Total	3,6%	3,6%	7,2%
	not useful at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,642	3	,450
Likelihood Ratio	2,746	3	,433
Linear-by-Linear Association	,755	1	,385
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	very useful	Count	49	14	63
		% of Total	35,3%	10,1%	45,3%
	rather useful	Count	35	17	52
		% of Total	25,2%	12,2%	37,4%
	not very useful	Count	13	10	23
		% of Total	9,4%	7,2%	16,5%
	not useful at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,439	3	,218
Likelihood Ratio	4,656	3	,199
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,116	1	,078
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 2 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	very useful	Count	48	23	71
		% of Total	34,5%	16,5%	51,1%
	rather useful	Count	39	11	50
		% of Total	28,1%	7,9%	36,0%
	not very useful	Count	9	5	14
		% of Total	6,5%	3,6%	10,1%
	not useful at all	Count	2	2	4
		% of Total	1,4%	1,4%	2,9%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,707	3	,439
Likelihood Ratio	2,700	3	,440
Linear-by-Linear Association	,012	1	,914
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,18.

How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	very useful	Count	40	18	58
		% of Total	28,8%	12,9%	41,7%
	rather useful	Count	51	17	68
		% of Total	36,7%	12,2%	48,9%
	not very useful	Count	7	5	12
		% of Total	5,0%	3,6%	8,6%
	not useful at all	Count		1	1
		% of Total		,7%	,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,972	3	,265
Likelihood Ratio	3,991	3	,262
Linear-by-Linear Association	,311	1	,577
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to handle students drafts	very useful	Count	43	15	58
		% of Total	31,2%	10,9%	42,0%
	rather useful	Count	40	23	63
		% of Total	29,0%	16,7%	45,7%
	not very useful	Count	11	3	14
		% of Total	8,0%	2,2%	10,1%
	not useful at all	Count	3		3
		% of Total	2,2%		2,2%
Total		Count	97	41	138
		% of Total	70,3%	29,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,533	3	,316
Likelihood Ratio	4,368	3	,224
Linear-by-Linear Association	,033	1	,857
N of Valid Cases	138		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,89.

How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	very useful	Count	45	12	57
		% of Total	32,4%	8,6%	41,0%
	rather useful	Count	44	21	65
		% of Total	31,7%	15,1%	46,8%
	not very useful	Count	8	8	16
		% of Total	5,8%	5,8%	11,5%
	not useful at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,854	3	,119
Likelihood Ratio	5,974	3	,113
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,069	1	,044
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 3 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	very useful	Count	58	22	80
		% of Total	41,7%	15,8%	57,6%
	rather useful	Count	34	18	52
		% of Total	24,5%	12,9%	37,4%
	not very useful	Count	4	1	5
		% of Total	2,9%	,7%	3,6%
	not useful at all	Count	2		2
		% of Total	1,4%		1,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,862	3	,602
Likelihood Ratio	2,423	3	,489
Linear-by-Linear Association	,000	1	,987
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,59.

How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	very useful	Count	78	32	110
		% of Total	56,1%	23,0%	79,1%
	rather useful	Count	16	8	24
		% of Total	11,5%	5,8%	17,3%
	not very useful	Count	3	1	4
		% of Total	2,2%	,7%	2,9%
	not useful at all	Count	1		1
		% of Total	,7%		,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,636	3	,888
Likelihood Ratio	,914	3	,822
Linear-by-Linear Association	,012	1	,911
N of Valid Cases	139		

a 4 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,29.

Appendix 32

Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials	nem	Count	26	14	40
		% of Total	18,7%	10,1%	28,8%
	igen	Count	72	27	99
		% of Total	51,8%	19,4%	71,2%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,818	1	,366		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,80.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook	nem	Count	24	6	30
		% of Total	17,3%	4,3%	21,6%
	igen	Count	74	35	109
		% of Total	53,2%	25,2%	78,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,659	1	,198		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,85.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum	nem	Count	68	25	93
		% of Total	48,9%	18,0%	66,9%
	igen	Count	30	16	46
		% of Total	21,6%	11,5%	33,1%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,924	1	,336		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13,57.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum	nem	Count	84	30	114
		% of Total	60,4%	21,6%	82,0%
	igen	Count	14	11	25
		% of Total	10,1%	7,9%	18,0%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,083	1	,079		
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,061	1	,080		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,37.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination	nem	Count	37	17	54
		% of Total	26,6%	12,2%	38,8%
	igen	Count	61	24	85
		% of Total	43,9%	17,3%	61,2%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,167	1	,682		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,93.

Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations	nem	Count	26	19	45
		% of Total	18,7%	13,7%	32,4%
	igen	Count	72	22	94
		% of Total	51,8%	15,8%	67,6%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,182	1	,023		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13,27.

Appendix 33

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes * How old are your students? - csoportosítva Crosstabulation

			How old are your students? - csoportosítva		Total
			11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	14-18 éveseket tanít	
Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes	yes	Count	34	63	97
		% of Total	25,0%	46,3%	71,3%
	no	Count	8	31	39
		% of Total	5,9%	22,8%	28,7%
Total		Count	42	94	136
		% of Total	30,9%	69,1%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,755	1	**,097**		
N of Valid Cases	136				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,04.

Appendix 34

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary)	nem tanítja	Count	66	25	91
		% of Total	47,5%	18,0%	65,5%
	tanítja	Count	32	16	48
		% of Total	23,0%	11,5%	34,5%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

hi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,519	1	,471		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14,16.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner)	nem tanítja	Count	48	15	63
		% of Total	34,5%	10,8%	45,3%
	tanítja	Count	50	26	76
		% of Total	36,0%	18,7%	54,7%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,792	1	,181		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,58.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	21	7	28
		% of Total	15,1%	5,0%	20,1%
	tanítja	Count	77	34	111
		% of Total	55,4%	24,5%	79,9%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,341	1	,559		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,26.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	16	14	30
		% of Total	11,5%	10,1%	21,6%
	tanítja	Count	82	27	109
		% of Total	59,0%	19,4%	78,4%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,424	1	,020		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,85.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate)	nem tanítja	Count	44	32	76
		% of Total	31,7%	23,0%	54,7%
	tanítja	Count	54	9	63
		% of Total	38,8%	6,5%	45,3%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,819	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,58.

What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced) * Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes Crosstabulation

			Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes		Total
			yes	no	
What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced)	nem tanítja	Count	82	40	122
		% of Total	59,0%	28,8%	87,8%
	tanítja	Count	16	1	17
		% of Total	11,5%	,7%	12,2%
Total		Count	98	41	139
		% of Total	70,5%	29,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,194	1	,023		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,01.

Appendix 35

Prestige

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
yes	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	46	46,9	46,9	46,9
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	52	53,1	53,1	100,0
		Total	98	100,0	100,0	
no	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	11	26,8	26,8	26,8
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	30	73,2	73,2	100,0
		Total	41	100,0	100,0	
9999	Valid	Magas presztizsű iskola	1	50,0	50,0	50,0
		Nem magas presztizsű iskola	1	50,0	50,0	100,0
		Total	2	100,0	100,0	

Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes * Az iskola presztizse Crosstabulation

			Prestige		Total
			Prest	Non-prest.	
Do your students write in English outside the classroom for real-life purposes	yes	Count	46	52	98
		% of Total	33,1%	37,4%	70,5%
	no	Count	11	30	41
		% of Total	7,9%	21,6%	29,5%
Total		Count	57	82	139
		% of Total	41,0%	59,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,832	1	,028		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,81.

Appendix 36

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
How confident...? - grammar	Equal variances assumed	1,552	,215	,379	139	,705
	Equal variances not assumed			,367	108,565	,714
How confident...? - vocabulary	Equal variances assumed	,017	,897	-1,058	139	,292
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,059	123,429	,292
How confident...? - reading skills	Equal variances assumed	,291	,591	,709	139	,480
	Equal variances not assumed			,692	112,209	,490
How confident...? - listening skills	Equal variances assumed	,007	,932	-,825	139	,411
	Equal variances not assumed			-,828	124,443	,409
How confident...? - speaking skills	Equal variances assumed	,359	,550	,010	138	,992
	Equal variances not assumed			,010	115,676	,992
How confident...? - writing skills	Equal variances assumed	,521	,472	1,146	139	,254
	Equal variances not assumed			1,134	118,079	,259

Appendix 37

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	*Sig.*	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
How confident...? - writing postcards and greeting cards	Equal variances assumed	1,815	*,180*	1,676	138	,096
	Equal variances not assumed			1,642	113,295	,103
How confident...? - Arranging sentences into paragraphs	Equal variances assumed	1,043	*,309*	,795	136	,428
	Equal variances not assumed			,799	122,801	,426
How confident...? - arraging paragraphs into passages	Equal variances assumed	2,104	*,149*	1,339	138	,183
	Equal variances not assumed			1,310	112,902	,193
How confident...? - writing instructions, derections	Equal variances assumed	,007	*,935*	,075	139	,940
	Equal variances not assumed			,075	120,429	,941
How confident...? - writing informal letters	Equal variances assumed	,019	*,890*	,628	139	,531
	Equal variances not assumed			,621	117,365	,536
How confident...? - writing formal letters	Equal variances assumed	,378	*,540*	1,396	138	,165
	Equal variances not assumed			1,395	122,616	,165
How confident...? - writing up a story with the help of guedlines	Equal variances assumed	,138	*,711*	1,391	139	,166
	Equal variances not assumed			1,344	107,059	,182
How confident...? - writing up a story with a given beginning or ending	Equal variances assumed	,164	*,686*	1,264	138	,208
	Equal variances not assumed			1,259	118,745	,211
How confident...? - How confident...? - completing forms and questionaires	Equal variances assumed	1,596	*,209*	-1,811	138	,072
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,817	124,417	,072
How confident...? - writing text with the help of pictures or other prompts	Equal variances assumed	,004	*,952*	1,050	139	,295
	Equal variances not assumed			1,035	116,268	,303
How confident...? - writing short notes, diary entries	Equal variances assumed	2,006	*,159*	,234	137	,815
	Equal variances not assumed			,237	122,415	,813

Appendix 38

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	*Sig.*	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
How useful would you find....? - how to motivate my students to wrtie	Equal variances assumed	1,595	*,209*	-,714	139	,476
	Equal variances not assumed			-,727	129,802	,469
How useful would you find....? - how to plan and structure the writing task	Equal variances assumed	5,204	*,024*	-,854	138	,394
	Equal variances not assumed			-,904	137,992	,368
How useful would you find....? - how to help my students to collect ideas for the task	Equal variances assumed	3,837	*,052*	-,353	138	,724
	Equal variances not assumed			-,366	133,177	,715
How useful would you find....? - how to teach the features of the English written discourse	Equal variances assumed	2,655	*,105*	-2,577	139	,011
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,690	137,090	,008
How useful would you find....? - how to deal with formality-informality	Equal variances assumed	,011	*,915*	,137	139	,891
	Equal variances not assumed			,136	119,394	,892
How useful would you find....? - how to teach writing styles	Equal variances assumed	,140	*,709*	-,441	139	,660
	Equal variances not assumed			-,442	123,674	,659
How useful would you find....? - how to make my students co-operate	Equal variances assumed	,812	*,369*	-,444	139	,658
	Equal variances not assumed			-,453	131,203	,651
How useful would you find....? - how to use time effectively	Equal variances assumed	,008	*,927*	,433	139	,666
	Equal variances not assumed			,433	122,179	,666
How useful would you find....? -	Equal	,453	*,502*	-,822	138	,413

how to handle students drafts	variances assumed					
	Equal variances not assumed			-,839	128,555	,403
How useful would you find....? - how to give feedback to my students	Equal variances assumed	,712	*,400*	-,382	139	,703
	Equal variances not assumed			-,376	115,161	,708
How useful would you find....? - how to mark my students writing	Equal variances assumed	1,800	*,182*	1,107	139	,270
	Equal variances not assumed			1,080	111,248	,283
How useful would you find....? - how to prepare my students for the new school-leaving examination	Equal variances assumed	11,783	*,001*	1,654	139	,100
	Equal variances not assumed			1,530	88,048	,130

Appendix 39

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - my own ideas and materials		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest	Count	16	42	58
		% of Total	11,3%	29,8%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	25	58	83
		% of Total	17,7%	41,1%	58,9%
Total		Count	41	100	141
		% of Total	29,1%	70,9%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,106	1	,744		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,87.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - my students need and wishes		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	16	42	58
		% of Total	11,3%	29,8%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	28	55	83
		% of Total	19,9%	39,0%	58,9%
Total		Count	44	97	141
		% of Total	31,2%	68,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,601	1	,438		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,10.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the coursebook		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	12	46	58
		% of Total	8,5%	32,6%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	19	64	83
		% of Total	13,5%	45,4%	58,9%
Total		Count	31	110	141
		% of Total	22,0%	78,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,097	1	,756		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,75.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the English frame curriculum		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	44	14	58
		% of Total	31,2%	9,9%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	51	32	83
		% of Total	36,2%	22,7%	58,9%
Total		Count	95	46	141
		% of Total	67,4%	32,6%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,228	1	,072		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table
b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,92.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the school curriculum		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	52	6	58
		% of Total	36,9%	4,3%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	63	20	83
		% of Total	44,7%	14,2%	58,9%
Total		Count	115	26	141
		% of Total	81,6%	18,4%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,293	1	,038		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,70.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of the present school-leaving examination		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	28	30	58
		% of Total	19,9%	21,3%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	27	56	83
		% of Total	19,1%	39,7%	58,9%
Total		Count	55	86	141
		% of Total	39,0%	61,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,558	1	,059		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22,62.

Az iskola presztizse * Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations Crosstabulation

			Factors determine your writing syllabus - the requirements of other language examinations		Total
			no	yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	17	41	58
		% of Total	12,1%	29,1%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	29	54	83
		% of Total	20,6%	38,3%	58,9%
Total		Count	46	95	141
		% of Total	32,6%	67,4%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,492	1	,483		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,92.

Appendix 40

A magas presztizsû iskolákban tanítók - A nem magas presztizsû iskolákban tanítók mely korosztályokat tanítanak

How old are your students? - csoportosítva

Az iskola presztizse			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Magas presztizsű iskola	Valid	11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	29	50,0	50,9	50,9
		14-18 éveseket tanít	28	48,3	49,1	100,0
		Total	57	98,3	100,0	
	Missing	9999	1	1,7		
	Total		58	100,0		
Nem magas presztizsű iskola	Valid	11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	14	16,9	17,3	17,3
		14-18 éveseket tanít	67	80,7	82,7	100,0
		Total	81	97,6	100,0	
	Missing	9999	2	2,4		
	Total		83	100,0		

Az iskola presztizse * How old are your students? - csoportosítva Crosstabulation

			How old are your students? - csoportosítva		Total
			11-13 éveseket illetve 11-13 és 14-18 éveseket is tanít	14-18 éveseket tanít	
Az iskola presztizse	Magas presztizsű iskola	Count	29	28	57
		% of Total	21,0%	20,3%	41,3%
	Nem magas presztizsű iskola	Count	14	67	81
		% of Total	10,1%	48,6%	58,7%
Total		Count	43	95	138
		% of Total	31,2%	68,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17,602	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	138				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17,76.

Appendix 41

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (elementary)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	38	20	58
		% of Total	27,0%	14,2%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	54	29	83
		% of Total	38,3%	20,6%	58,9%
Total		Count	92	49	141
		% of Total	65,2%	34,8%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,003	1	**,955**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20,16.

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (beginner)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	32	26	58
		% of Total	22,7%	18,4%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	32	51	83
		% of Total	22,7%	36,2%	58,9%
Total		Count	64	77	141
		% of Total	45,4%	54,6%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,804	1	**,051**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26,33.

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (pre-intermediate)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	18	40	58
		% of Total	12,8%	28,4%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	11	72	83
		% of Total	7,8%	51,1%	58,9%
Total		Count	29	112	141
		% of Total	20,6%	79,4%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,608	1	**,010**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,93.

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (intermediate)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	14	44	58
		% of Total	9,9%	31,2%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	17	66	83
		% of Total	12,1%	46,8%	58,9%
Total		Count	31	110	141
		% of Total	22,0%	78,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,266	1	**,606**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,75.

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (upper-intermediate)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	29	29	58
		% of Total	20,6%	20,6%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	49	34	83
		% of Total	34,8%	24,1%	58,9%
Total		Count	78	63	141
		% of Total	55,3%	44,7%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,128	1	**,288**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25,91.

Az iskola presztizse * What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced) Crosstabulation

			What proficiency levels are you teaching? (advanced)		Total
			No	Yes	
Az iskola presztizse	Prest.	Count	49	9	58
		% of Total	34,8%	6,4%	41,1%
	Non-prest.	Count	75	8	83
		% of Total	53,2%	5,7%	58,9%
Total		Count	124	17	141
		% of Total	87,9%	12,1%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,113	1	**,291**		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6,99.

4 Writing task

You have decided to enter a short story competition organised by a teenage magazine. Read the competition rules and write your story.

Short Story Competition

Write a story ending with the following words:

It was definitely the strangest thing that had happened to her.

Your story should be between 120 and 150 words.

4 Writing task

Imagine that you are a news reporter for a local newspaper. Write about an event in your city/town when people protested against a decision they did not agree with. Your news report should be between 120 and 150 words.

tip *When you write a news report:*

- *Write an interesting headline to catch the reader's attention.*
- *In the introduction mention only the main points briefly and clearly.*
- *Use the passive voice and participle clauses.*
- *Include only facts. Do not express your feelings and opinion.*
- *Use direct speech when reporting people's comments.*
- *Don't write sentences that are too short. Link your ideas using relative pronouns, time linkers, although etc.*

4 Writing task

9

You went on a package holiday recently, but there were many things that you didn't like about it. Look at the advertisement and the notes you have made. Then, write a letter of complaint to the travel agent covering the points in your notes and adding any relevant information. Your letter should be between 120 and 150 words.

4 Writing task

1

A friend of yours from England is interested in doing a language course in your country. Read the part of the letter he has sent you and the notes you have made, and write a letter to him. Your letter should be between 120 and 150 words.

21st June-21st July

Could you please check which dates the local college runs language courses and what kind of accommodation it offers?

Thanks a lot. I'm looking forward to your letter.

Take care,

Adam

Stay at my place!

- free time plans
- stay on after course ends

4 Writing task

(8)

You have seen the advertisement below and would like to have some further information. Write a letter using the notes you have made. Your letter should be between 120 and 140 words.

Where exactly?

What bands / singers?

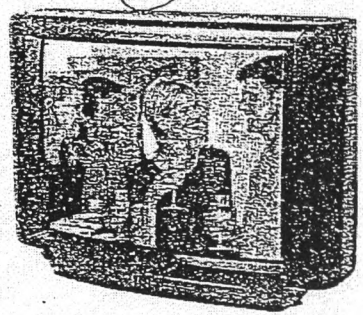
- When does it start?
- How much?

Which stores exactly?

4 Writing task

(10)

Your teacher has asked you to write an essay on the advantages and disadvantages of watching television. Your essay must be between 120 and 160 words.

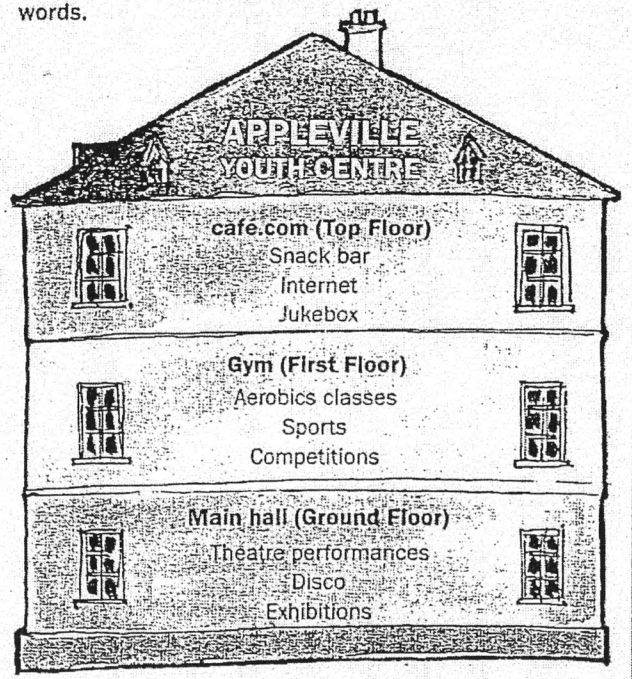


Tip *When you write an essay:*

- *Make a list of advantages and disadvantages before you start writing.*
- *Use formal language.*
- *Use linking words and phrases.*
- *Avoid using the first person singular (I) unless you are stating your opinion in the conclusion.*

4 Writing task

Look at the plan of a local youth centre and write a text which will be used for a brochure. Expand on the information given and use some of the expressions suggested. Your text should be between 120 and 150 words.



5 Writing task

Read the part of a letter below. Imagine that a friend of yours has sent it to you. Write back, giving him advice.

Ever since I moved to this horrible place, things haven't been the same. School has become a real problem. I haven't made any new friends yet and everybody here makes fun of my accent and calls me names. I'm fed up of being alone during breaktimes. My grades have dropped and I don't even want to go to school anymore. I've started to pretend I'm ill, so I can stay at home. What is happening to me? You know that I'm a nice person. I don't think I deserve this. How am I going to make all this stop? Please help me. I really need your advice.

5 Writing task

(3)

Imagine that you are one of the organisers of 'Green Day'. You have received a letter from a teenager who has seen the advertisement below and would like some extra information. Read part of his/her letter and the notes you have made. Then, write a letter to the teenager giving the necessary information.

visit bird sanctuary, clean and feed sea birds

collect old newspapers from houses

- over 14 years old
- Sunday 17th March

However, I would like some more information. How old do I have to be to take part in Green Day? Will the event take place at the weekend because I can't come during the week? What do you mean by nature reserve? Will I need to bring things to be recycled?

Please, let me know about these things as soon as possible.

5 Writing task

(6)

You have been asked to write an article entitled: An Unforgettable April Fool's Day for a teenage magazine. Your article should be between 120 and 150 words.

tip *When you write an article about a personal experience:*

- *Write an interesting title and introduction in order to catch the reader's attention.*
- *Refer to the reader in a friendly way.*
- *Use interesting vocabulary.*
- *Include linking words to join your ideas.*
- *End your article in a way that will impress the reader.*

Appendix 43

EXAMPLE 14 - INDIVIDUAL MARKING SCALE

language (8 points) (4 means acceptable/adequate - mark up or down from 4)

content (9 points) 1 for each of the following:

- road conditions not good
- speed not 38 mph
- no indicator
- no looking in mirror
- pulled out suddenly, not in plenty of time
- motorcyclist not attempting to pass
- motorcylist not attempting to pass
- didn't bounce off central barrier
- proof of corroborative evidence

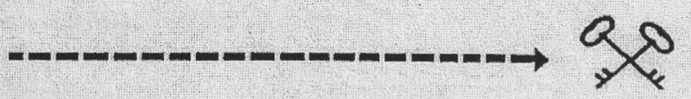
EXAMPLE 15 - GLOBAL RATING SCALE

18-20	Excellent	Free from errors, substantial length, well constructed, complete control over choice and arrangement of words and ideas.
16-17	Very good	Good length and structure, correct and ambitious treatment of the task set, natural and appropriate in style.
12-15	Good	Free from basic errors, theme maintained with some assurance and vocabulary resource.
8-11	Pass	Uses the English language to communicate a clear, connected sequence of ideas, with reasonably correct and natural syntax and vocabulary.
5-7	Weak	Near to pass level in general scope, but inadequate either because of numerous errors, too elementary an approach or serious irrelevance.
0-4	Very poor	Errors and narrowness of vocabulary prevent communication.

[University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate: First Certificate in English (FCE)]

Nine-level yardstick for general writing from the ESU Framework

9	Writes all general texts and texts in own specialist areas with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of writing. Message is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Text is coherently organized with effective use of cohesive devices. Layout and structure aid force of argument. Style effectively matched to topic and reader. Language control complete apart from occasional obvious 'slips'. Complete accuracy, fluency and appropriate use of idiom contribute to overall impression of writing.
8	Writes a full range of texts with competence and confidence approaching those in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Length matches requirements of task. Message well adjusted to reader. Text organisation is clear with appropriate cohesive devices. Style suits subject. Good sentence variety. Text flows. Layout and punctuation helpful. Language repertoire good. Correct and appropriate usage of grammar and vocabulary. Few formal errors apart from 'slips'. Spelling and writing help intelligibility.
7	Writes a wide range of texts with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed. Interesting treatment. Suitable length. Presentation relevant to task and reader. Text accurately presented with clarity of organisation with suitable use of cohesion and topic markers. Style well adjusted to task. Layout and punctuation helpful. Uses a wide language repertoire accurately, with occasional lapses of appropriacy and inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting good.
6	Writes moderate-level texts with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level texts. Message adequately conveyed. Basic ideas conveyed with clarity and relevance to reader. Language limitations impede fully-effective performance. Text is adequately presented but with lapses in flow, organisation and cohesion. Has a limited stylistic range. Punctuation and layout basically helpful. Has fair language repertoire but with several lapses in accuracy. Idiom, if used at all, may be unsuitable. Spelling and handwriting quite clear and intelligible.
5	Writes moderate-level texts with adequate competence and confidence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety. Often bald and halting, reducing interest. Reader has to backtrack on occasion to clarify thread of topic. Text organisation adequate but presentation lacks subtlety. Some use of stylistic variation and basic cohesive devices. Punctuation and layout acceptable. Has a moderate language repertoire, but fairly frequent errors and inappropriacies. Meaning of sentences conveyed. Spelling and handwriting legible.
4	Writes simple texts with good competence and confidence; some problems with moderate-level texts. Message conveyed basically but without subtlety. Deals with main topic required but with lack of clarity and interest. Marginally communicative. Text organisation haphazard and not coherent throughout. Little use of stylistic variation or cohesive devices. Punctuation, paragraphing and layout basic. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety and frequent inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple texts with adequate competence and confidence, but with many problems with moderate-level texts. Produces a string of sentences bearing to some extent on the required message. Little sense of reader expectations. Finer details not dealt with. Lacking in interest. Little sense of text organisation. Mainly descriptive or narrative style lacking cohesion. Punctuation basic and often omitted. Layout of little help to reader. Has a narrow language repertoire, with regular inaccuracies and inappropriacies which impede basic message. Spelling and handwriting cause problems of intelligibility.
2	Writes simple texts with erratic competence and confidence. Manages a few simple sentences, but relationship to required message is tenuous. Little intrinsic interest. Subsidiary themes and details ignored or presented in confused ways. Little text organisation with little cohesion between its sentences. Lacks flow. No stylistic variation. Punctuation and layout not helpful to reader. Has a very narrow language repertoire, with many inaccuracies. Spelling errors and poor handwriting make topic rather difficult to discern.
1	Writes only the simplest texts, eg completing forms with name, address, etc. Any message is difficult to decipher; or not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence; or does not provide enough evidence to assess properly. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional grasp of lexis or sentence structure. Handwriting and spelling may make text very difficult to read.



Appendix 44

TASK A

You are studying English at a summer course in Lancaster. Tonight you would like to go out but you don't want to miss two television programmes either. You decide to ask your roommate, Carla, to make a video recording of the programme which you have selected from What's On, the TV magazine.

This is tonight's programme on BBC1 :

7:00 pm Friends
Chandler and Monica's relationship becomes public.

7:30 pm
Top of the Pops
The week's chart toppers.

8:00 pm
Film
Fearless (Peter Weir, 1993)
A man walks unhurt from a plane crash and comes to believe the experience has made him immortal.

10:00 pm
BBC News
National and international news from the BBC, followed by Weather.

10:25 pm
The Life of Mammals
David Attenborough puts meat eaters under the microscope.

Choose two programmes which you would like to see and write a note of about 50 words to Carla in which you ask her to record them for you.

Answer the following questions:

- Where are you going tonight?
- What time are you going to be back?
- Why are you interested in the programme?

Begin your note like this:

Hi, Carla,

ANGOL NYELV - KÖZÉPSZINT
ÍRÁSKÉSZSÉG VÁLASZLAP

TASK A

Hi Carla,

I must go out tonight, because my brother has a concert on the tradems, so when you read this ~~kk~~ message, I don't stay here. I want to watch ~~to~~ two television mogr. Please, make me a record about Fearless. You know, my mum love the Peter Weir films, and make me a record about The Life of Naturals too; because I'm interested in it.

Thank you very much.

See you at 12 o'clock

X.Y

Appendix 45

TASK B

You have received an e-mail from an English friend, Peter, who intends to spend two days in Hungary with his parents on their way to Croatia. They only have time to visit Budapest and one place in the country. He wants your advice about where to go.

Reply to Peter and recommend a place outside Budapest, somewhere in the

country. Write an e-mail of 120-150 words including the following points:

- Where the place is
- Description of the place
- Accommodation, food, possible activities
- Why you think they will like it

Begin your e-mail like this:

Dear Peter,

TASK B

Dear Peter,

I'm very happy, because you visit my country.
I found the greatest place in Hungary. The
city's name is Miskolc. This is the 3rd biggest
place in this country. There are a lot of
monuments, parks, mountains and rivers. Next to
Miskolc there are two little town, Lillafüred and
Diósgyőr. On Lillafüred there is a spawning
pool in a cave. It's really wonderfull. And
there are some lakes and one big zoo.
On Diósgyőr there is big, beautifull, ancient
castle. You must see that, and all there places.
If you want you can play tennis, soccer,
and many activities, or we can go to
cinema or theatre, and so one, and so one.
So I think this is the best place in
Hungary.

Your friend XY